











# HUTCHINSON'S HISTORY OF THE NATIONS

A Popular, Concise, Pictorial, and  
Authoritative Account of each Nation  
from the earliest times to the present day

*Edited by*

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(BARRISTER-AT-LAW)



VOL. III.

CONTAINING

719 BLACK & WHITE ILLUSTRATIONS  
13 COLOURED PLATES AND 20 MAPS

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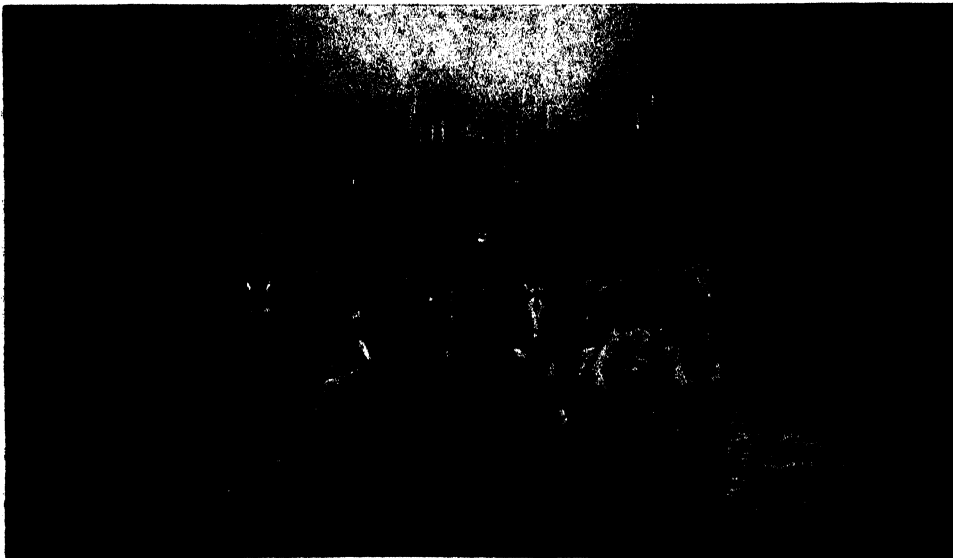
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THE CONQUERORS OF THE WORLD

[Painted by Pierre Fritel.









# DATES OF BELGIAN HISTORY

PERIODS.	DATE	CHIEF EVENTS.
From the period of invasions by Romans, Franks and Saxons to the Treaty of Verdun.	B.C.	Gallia Belgica made a province with an Imperial Governor.
	15	Celts and Teutons unite in unavailing efforts to drive the Romans out of Gaul.
	A.D.	Beginnings of Frankish occupation.
	70	Toxandria is given to the Franks.
	280	The Franks help the Romans to subdue the natives.
	358	Victory of the Salians of Dispargum at Cambray.
	406	The Battle of Châlons. Franks aid in defeating the Huns.
	429	Reign of Clovis. Invasions by Saxons.
	451	First Christian Church founded by Dagobert I.
	481-511	Willibrod becomes the first bishop.
	622-632	Brabant the chief of the independent dukedoms.
	695	Saxons crushed by Charlemagne.
	700	
	785	
From the rise of the Houses of Brabant, Flanders and Hainault to the marriage of Mary of Burgundy with Maximilian.	843	Division of the Netherlands by the Treaty of Verdun, the western provinces, Flanders and Artois, become French, and the eastern, which include Brabant, fall to Germany.
	864	Baldwin Forester, on his marriage with the daughter of Charles the Bald, becomes governor of the county of Flanders.
	918	Weavers established in Ghent during the reign of Arnold, son of Baldwin the Bald.
	1067	Hainault subjugated by Flanders in the reign of Baldwin VI.
	1119	Extinction of the first line of Flemish counts.
	1127	Assassination of Charles the Good by merchants of Bruges. Count Thierry of Alsace overthrows and kills William of Normandy, who had been chosen by the nobles.
	1128	Count Thierry proclaimed ruler of Flanders. Rise of the Belgian communes.
	1101	Baldwin of Hainault succeeds to the county of Flanders and grants much territory to France.
	1195	On his succession Baldwin IX. hands over the government to his brother Philip, and leaves Flanders to found a Latin Empire at Constantinople.
	1214	The Battle of Bouvines, in which the French army defeated the allied forces of the Emperor Otho IV., King John of England, and the Flemish.
	1279	As successors are wanting for the two countships, Flanders is given to Guy de Dampierre and Hainault to John of Avennes.
	1288	John I. secures the Duchy of Limburg by defeating and slaying his competitor, Henry of Luxemburg, at the Battle of Woeringen.
	1297	Pope Boniface VIII. arbitrates between Guy de Dampierre and the King of France.
	1300	Philip of France imprisons Guy and his sons.
	1301	Flanders confiscated by the French king.
	1302	Over three thousand French are massacred during the "Bruges Matins." The Battle of Courtrai, also known as the Battle of the Spurs.
	1305	Death of Guy. Release of his son Robert of Béthune, who signs an agreement against the interests of Flanders.
	1323	Holland released from fealty to Flanders by the cession of the Zealand Islands.
	1335	The Flemish provinces take part in the war between England and France. Jacob van Artevelde assumes the leadership of the communes.
	1345	Murder of Van Artevelde. William IV., Count of Hainault, declares war on Utrecht. In a subsequent war with the Frieslanders his army is defeated, and he himself is killed.
	1346	Count Louis of Flanders killed at the Battle of Crécy. Succession of his son Louis of Male.
	1349	Quarrel between Margaret, the sister and successor of William IV. of Hainault, and her son William.
	1354	Agreement between Margaret and William, by which the latter retains Holland, Zealand and Friesland with the title of William V. Margaret receives a pension and possession of Hainault.
	1357	Antwerp and Mechlin ceded to Louis of Male.
	1359	William V. of Hainault being proved insane, his younger brother Albert takes charge of affairs.
	1369	France cedes Lille, Douai, Orchies, Hesdin, and Béthune.
	1382	Philip van Artevelde is defeated and slain by the French at the Battle of Roosebeke.
	1384	Death of Louis, Count of Flanders.
	1404	Death of Philip of Burgundy, son-in-law and successor of Louis. Succession of John of Burgundy. Brabant united to Flanders. Death of Count Albert of Hainault and succession of his son William VI.
	1417	On the death of William of Hainault his daughter Jacqueline succeeds, but she is opposed by John of Bavaria.
	1425	War continued against Jacqueline by Philip of Burgundy, named as rightful heir by John of Bavaria.
	1428	Philip takes over the administration of all Jacqueline's estates.
	1430	The duchy of Brabant passes to the house of Burgundy.
	1431	John of Burgundy murdered. His son Philip succeeds him.
	1434	Jacqueline of Hainault cedes her possessions to Philip of Burgundy.
	1439	Death of Jacqueline. War declared against England.
	1467	Accession of Charles the Bold.
	1468	Alliance with England against France.
	1476	The Battle of Morat, in which the Swiss defeat Charles.
	1477	Charles defeated and slain at the Battle of Nancy. He is succeeded by his daughter Mary. Congress at Ghent and grant of the "Great Privilege." Marriage of Mary with Maximilian, son of the Emperor.
	1488	Maximilian makes a treaty with Francis, Duke of Brittany, the latter's independence being threatened by the French Regent, Anne of Beaujeu. The war which follows proves unpopular with the trading cities of the Netherlands, and Maximilian is kept at Ghent until the approach of his father's army brings about his release.
From the appointment as governor of Philip, son of the Emperor Maximilian, to the alliance of the States with England.	1494	On succeeding to the Imperial throne, Maximilian appoints his son Philip the Fair governor of the Netherlands.
	1506	Death of Philip. Margaret of Austria becomes regent for his son Charles.
	1515	At his fifteenth year Charles is made Duke of Brabant and Count of Flanders and Holland.
	1510	Charles V. elected Emperor.
	1520	Peace of Cambray.
	1520	Punishment of Ghent for the revolt.
	1540	Abdication of Charles at Brussels, and accession of Philip II.
	1555	Philip leaves for Spain. Margaret, Duchess of Parma, appointed regent.
	1559	Conspiracy of the Netherlands nobles against Cardinal Granville, Philip's minister. The regent joins in protests to Philip, and Granville is removed.
	1562	Proclamation of the decree of the Council of Trent.
	1564	The Inquisition established in the Netherlands. Dissenting nobles meet and agree on resistance.
	1567	Retirement of the Prince of Orange to Germany and break-up of the confederacy. Determination of Alva to conquer by force. The "Council of Troubles" is established.
	1568	Wholesale slaughter of heretics by the Inquisition. Egmont and Hoorn executed at Brussels. The Prince of Orange takes the field.
	1572	Mons captured by Louis of Nassau, but afterwards recovered by the Spaniards.
	1573	Recall of Alva and arrival of Requesens in his place.
	1574	Louis of Nassau defeated and slain at Mookerheyde by Alva, whose troops subsequently mutiny and take Antwerp as security for their pay. Spanish fleet defeated by Boisot near Antwerp.
	1576	Almost seized by Spanish mutineers. Congress of patriots at Ghent. Antwerp sacked and destroyed by Spanish mutineers. "The Spanish Fury." Don John of Austria replaces Requesens on the latter's death. The "Pacification of Ghent" signed by the Congress.

# DATES OF BELGIAN HISTORY—*continued*

PERIODS.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
	1577	Union of Brussels signed, and accepted by Don John in the "Perpetual Edict." Entry of William of Orange into Brussels, where he is made governor.
	1578	An alliance of the States with England. Patriot army crushed by the Duke of Parma at Gembloux. Death of Don John, who is succeeded by the Duke of Parma.
From the League of Arras to the invasion of the Spanish Netherlands by the French.	1579	The League of Arras. Deputies of Hainault, Artois and Douai band themselves for the defence of Catholicism, at the same time professing allegiance to the King.
	1581	The Act of Abjuration and Declaration of Independence. Five provinces elect the Duke of Alençon and Anjou as their sovereign. Parma forced to retire from Cambray by Anjou. Capture of Tournay by Parma.
	1582	Inauguration of Anjou at Antwerp. Oudenarde captured by Parma.
	1583	Failure of Anjou's plot to seize Antwerp.
	1584	Death of Anjou.
	1585	Capture of Antwerp after a year's siege by Parma.
	1592	Death of Parma.
	1597	The Spanish defeated by Prince Maurice at Turnhout.
	1598	The Treaty of Vervins ends the Franco-Spanish War. The Netherlands and Burgundy are ceded to the Archduke Albert, who is crowned at Brussels. Death of Philip II.
	1600	Defeat of the Archduke Albert by Prince Maurice at the Battle of Nieuport.
	1601	Siege of Ostend begun by the Archduke Albert.
	1609	Twelve years' treaty between the Spanish and Dutch signed at Antwerp.
	1622	The Belgian provinces revert to the Spanish crown.
	1648	Invasion of the Spanish Netherlands by the French.
	1649	Treaty of the Pyrenees.
	1667	The Spanish Netherlands seek the aid of the United Provinces on invasion by Louis XIV.
	1668	Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
The period of Spanish and Austrian domination.	1674	An indecisive battle fought at Seneffe between the Prince of Orange and Condé. Orange captures Huy on the Meuse.
	1675	Capture of Dinant, Limburg and Huy by Condé.
	1677	Charleroi besieged by Orange, who is driven back.
	1679	Treaty of Nymwegen.
	1684	Luxemburg taken by the French.
	1690	The Dutch under the Prince of Waldeck are defeated at Fleurus.
	1691	Capture of Mons by the French. The Prince of Waldeck defeated at Leuze.
	1692	Maximilian of Bavaria becomes governor of the Spanish Netherlands.
	1693	French victories at Dixmude, Furnes, Huy and Charleroi. French defeated at Landen.
	1695	Capture of Namur after siege by William of Orange.
	1697	Treaty of Ryswick.
	1702	Outbreak of the War of Spanish Succession.
	1709	The Duke of Marlborough captures Tournai and Mons.
	1713	Treaty of Utrecht. The Spanish Netherlands handed over to Austria.
	1720	Revolt at Brussels. Execution of the patriot Anneessens.
	1741	Death of the Archduchess Mary Elizabeth and appointment of Charles of Lorraine as governor.
	1744	French victories at Menin and Ypres in the War of Austrian Succession.
	1745	French victories at Tournai and Fontenoy.
	1748	The Austrian Netherlands conquered by Marshal Saxe.
	1787	Opposition to various edicts of Joseph II. in Belgium.
	1789	Reputation by Joseph II. of the Joyeuse Entrée, which brings about a revolt in Brabant. The Austrians defeated at Turnhout.
From the Treaty of Campo-Formio to the proclamation of Belgian independence.	1790	Independence of the United States of Belgium, which lasts for a year.
	1792	French invasion of Belgium.
	1794	The French drive the Austrians from the Netherlands by their victory at Fleurus.
	1797	The French conquest of Belgium confirmed by the Treaties of Campo-Formio and Lunéville (1801).
	1814	First abdication of Napoleon. Belgium is placed under the administration of an Austrian governor-general. At the Treaty of Paris Belgium is annexed to Holland, William of Orange being made governor-general.
	1815	Success of Ney against the English and Dutch, under William of Orange, at Quatre Bras. The allies totally defeat the French at Waterloo. Inauguration of William I. at Brussels. The Belgians become discontented with the Dutch, who control the government.
	1827	Concordat signed with the Pope.
	1830	Riots in Brussels and other cities. Occupation of part of Brussels by Dutch troops, which retreat in face of determined opposition. A provisional government proclaims the Independence of Belgium. A conference in London recognizes the separation of the country from Holland. Dutch troops hold Antwerp.
From the election of Duke Leopold of Saxe-Coburg as king to the European War.	1831	A constitution drawn up, and finally the crown is offered to Duke Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. The Belgians are defeated by the Dutch at Louvain. French troops sent to their assistance, and the Dutch accept an armistice. Treaty put forward by the Powers is accepted by Belgium, but Holland refuses to withdraw.
	1832	Marriage of Leopold with Louise, daughter of Louis Philippe. England and France combine to repress Holland, and Antwerp is besieged, after which the French army returns to France.
	1833	A convention is signed with Holland.
	1834	Riots take place in Brussels directed against the Dutch faction.
	1839	A treaty, recognizing the independence of Holland, concluded with the Dutch.
	1842	Education Bill passed in spite of clerical opposition.
	1847	Liberal successes at the elections lead to electoral reforms of the next year.
	1853	Increase of the army to 100,000.
	1860	Abolition of the food duties known as the Octrois.
	1863	The Scheldt declared open.
	1865	Death of Leopold I. and succession of Leopold II.
	1869	Death of the heir to the throne. Political riots and subsequent resignation of the ministry.
	1870	Franco-German War. England declares its intention to maintain the integrity of Belgium according to the treaty of 1839.
	1871-1878	M. Malou head of a cabinet of moderate Catholics.
	1880	Return of a Liberal government to power leads to a rupture of diplomatic relations with the Vatican.
	1883	Parliamentary Reform Bill passed.
	1884	Elections won by the clerics, but their reactionary Education Bill brings about their downfall.
	1885-1887	Leopold proclaimed King of the Congo Free State. Rioting amongst miners.
	1892	Universal suffrage rejected in favour of household suffrage. Further serious strikes.
	1894	Passing of the Electoral Reform Bill. Treaty with England in reference to the Congo Free State.
	1897	Flemish becomes the official language.
	1901	Time of compulsory service reduced. Postponement of the annexation of the Congo.
	1903	Belgian officials accused of terrible misrule in the Congo.
	1905	Death of the Count of Flanders, brother of the King, whose son Albert becomes heir to the throne.
	1909	Accession of King Albert I.
	1914	Outbreak of European War. Belgium invaded by Germany.

## CHAPTER XVI

*THE BELGIANS. By F. APPLEBY HOLT, B.A., LL.B.*

THE data for our knowledge of Belgian history before the tenth century are both scanty and confusing. It is true that Roman writers such as Caesar and Tacitus were greatly interested in the tribes and peoples who inhabited the regions which Roman arms subdued and Roman political genius transformed into "Gallia Belgica," one of the most important provinces of the Empire. But after that Empire broke up in the West, the immediate fate of the Belgic provinces becomes a matter for little more than conjecture, and it is not until four centuries have elapsed that we once more tread the firm ground of trustworthy evidence.

According to Caesar, the first of Belgium's many conquerors, the land south and west of the Rhine was inhabited mainly by tribes of Celtic stock, known indiscriminately to the Romans as Belgae. Of these, one tribe, the Nervii, whose home was on the site of modern Flanders, earned high praise from their conqueror as the bravest of his foes. Their valour, however, did not save them from the fate which usually befel the con-



*Photo by]*

*[Underwood & Underwood,*

### THE STATUE OF AMBIORIX AT TONGRES.

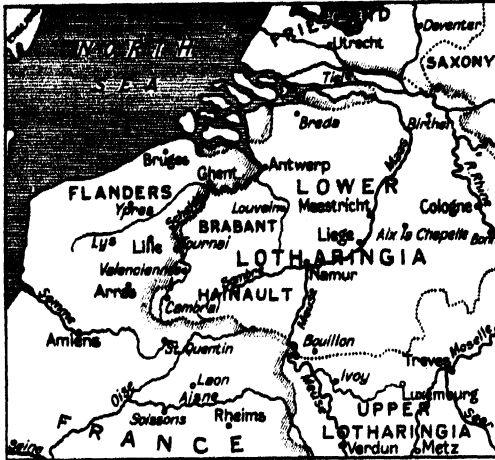
Ambiorix is one of the earliest Belgian heroes. He was a prince in Belgian Gaul of the Eburones tribe, and a contemporary of Caesar, who freed him from paying tribute to the Aduatuci. Notwithstanding this friendly action, Ambiorix joined in a rising against the Roman forces in 54 B.C., and all but exterminated them. He is said to have escaped Caesar's vengeance by crossing the Rhine.

all the paraphernalia of industry and progress. It may well be that the influence of the new conditions was not felt in the more remote districts such as the marshy coast-line and the forests of the Ardennes. To the savage, civilization is a doubtful boon and progress to respectability slow.

The Romans had consolidated their Belgian conquests by the reign of Augustus, but sixty years later, in 70 A.D., we hear of a rebellion on a large scale fomented and directed by an arch-rebel who is also a hero. The incident, which fills some of the most thrilling pages of Tacitus, has several features of interest. The hero was Civilis, a leader of the Batavians, the great Germanic people who inhabited the Batavian island between the mouths of the Rhine, and whose prowess had won for them an honourable alliance with the Romans. Civilis had seen service with the Roman armies. After winning

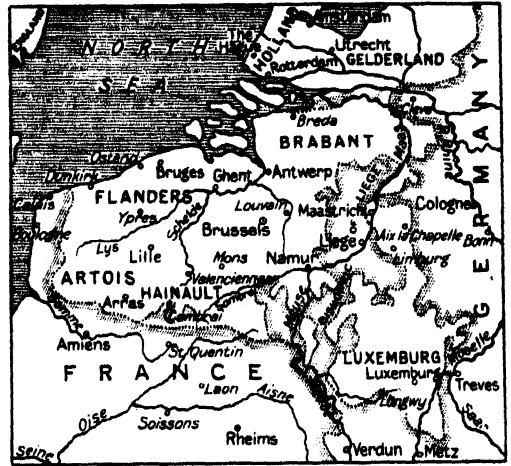
quered subjects of Rome. With their customary thoroughness the Romans turned the barbarous Belgian tribesmen into respectable provincials, and drilled and organized them into civilized communities. Gallia Belgica seems to have been administered with true Roman efficiency. Its value to the conquerors was mainly military as a bulwark of Gaul proper against the German hordes ever ready to break over the Rhine. The country was dotted over with great camps and military colonies, but peace and good government were secured to the original inhabitants, and, at any rate in the neighbourhood of the military establishments, towns grew up with





From 843 to 869 Belgium formed part of the domains of the Duke of Lotharingia or Lorraine.

great distinction in that service, he was ill-treated by Nero, and returned to his countrymen intent on organizing a confederation of German and Belgic tribes which should drive the Romans from the land. To this end



Later the country was divided into nine separate political provinces, over all of which Philip II. of Spain ruled in 1555.

he displayed powers of eloquence and political insight which were remarkable in that or any age. The Belgians rose against their masters; the Teutons swept down from the north and west, and the days of the Romans in Belgic Gaul seemed numbered. Fortunately the Roman commander Cerealis showed himself a man of resource and quickly took advantage of the inevitable dissensions between his German and Celtic enemies when the tide of initial successes was stayed. He reminded the rebellious Belgian provincials that peace and plenty under Roman rule were preferable to an uncertain and anarchical independence under the aegis of their restless Teutonic neighbours. The appeal had its effect. The Gallic tribes, one by one, gave in their allegiance, and when Civilis accepted from the Roman general an honourable offer of negotiation the revolt was at an end. Thenceforward Roman domination in Belgic Gaul remained unchallenged until the downfall of the Western Empire in the fifth century.

It has now been definitely established that the inroads of the Teutonic hordes into that Empire were preceded by a process of peaceful penetration into the outlying provinces. It is certain that as early as the third century large numbers of Germans belonging to the Salian branch of the great Frankish confederacy had made their way into the Belgian province and settled there. Later, when the Roman troops were withdrawn from the extremities to defend the very heart of the Empire, vast numbers of Teutonic barbarians poured over the Rhine, occupied Belgium, and used it as a bridge-head for their

further operations against Roman Gaul. The Franks soon established their dominion over all the Roman provinces in Northern Gaul and Belgium, and a rapid process of amalgamation of conquerors and conquered ended in the



Following the peace treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the Spanish Netherlands passed to the Hapsburg claimant, the Emperor Charles VI.



In 1830 the Belgians desiring a constitution of their own, broke away from Dutch rule and formed Belgium of to-day.

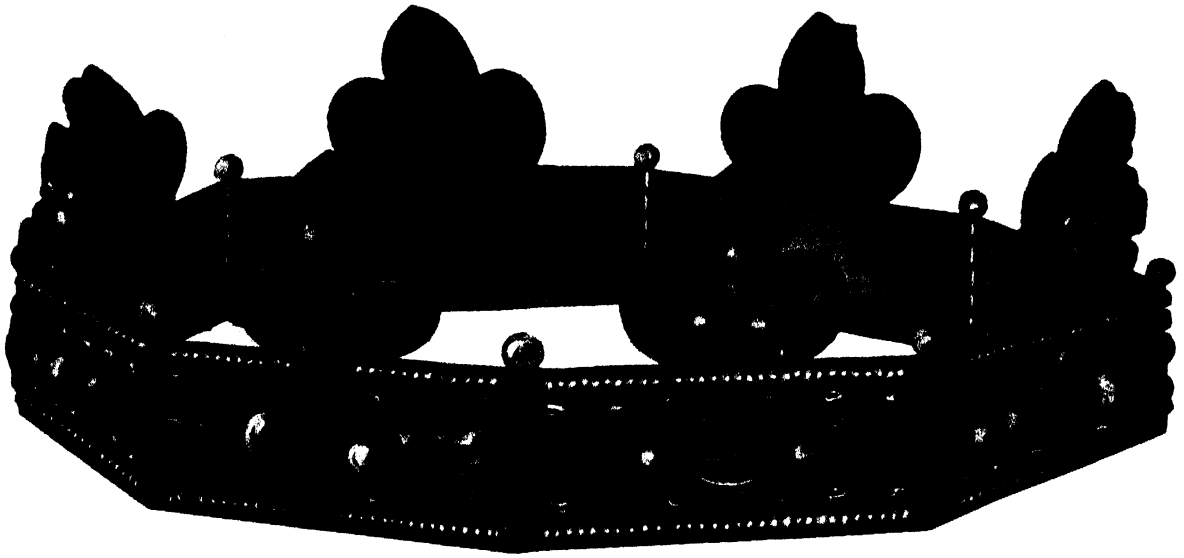


*Painted specially for this work]*

*[By H. M. Burton.*

#### CHARLEMAGNE RETURNING TO BRUSSELS, HIS COUNTRY SEAT.

Charlemagne's headquarters were at Aix-la-Chapelle, but he built for himself a château at Brussels, which in his time was a small but rising town, pleasantly situated and much favoured by the noble and influential men as a place of residence. The Low Countries formed a part of Charlemagne's vast dominions, and derived much benefit from his wise rule.



THE CROWN OF PHILIP II., COUNT OF NAMUR.

This beautiful octagonal medieval crown belongs to the thirteenth century and is preserved in the treasury of the Cathedral Church of Namur. It comprises eight oblong panels, hinged together and each surmounted by an ornament in the shape of a fleur-de-lis. The crown is richly studded with precious stones, which are arranged to form a cross in the front.

consolidation of all the Frankish acquisitions into the Frankish Empire. Belgium remained an integral portion of this Empire for some four centuries, an obscure period which witnessed the spread and triumph of Christianity among the heathen Franks and their no less notable adoption of Roman culture and civilization in place of primitive manners and institutions. The Frankish domination reached its zenith in the reign of Charlemagne, who extended his sway over the greater part of the territories comprised in the ancient Western Empire. With his death, indeed, in the year 814, the history of Belgium enters upon a phase, perhaps the most brilliant and glorious, which closes with the absorption of the whole of the country into the dominions of the great house of Burgundy in the fifteenth century. This period, however, cannot be seen in its true light without estimating the practical results which had been achieved under the Frankish domination.

Of these perhaps the most striking and permanent were the establishment and expansion of the Christian Church and the growth of the towns. The Belgians accepted Christianity from Rome, and soon proved themselves amongst the most ardent adherents of the new faith. During the sixth and seventh centuries bishoprics were established, churches founded, and the whole machinery of ecclesiastical organization was developed and in process of perfection. This process, however, was delayed and thwarted by the presence of a ring of heathen foes, such as the Frisians and Saxons, whose inroads were a perpetual menace to political and religious order. The force of Frankish arms and the victories of Charlemagne were more successful than the labours of missionaries in giving the Church in the Netherlands that security without which its civilizing work would have been frustrated. Accordingly it is not until the opening of the ninth century that we find a highly elaborate ecclesiastical system working side by side and in harmony with the equally elaborate political system which Frankish genius created under the guiding hand of Charlemagne.

This is the period also in which we first hear of the towns, and as the story of the Belgian cities fills so large and bright a page in history their origin and rise are worthy of notice. We have seen that the value of Belgium to the Romans was mainly military, and we should therefore expect that the sites of their cities would be determined primarily by strategical considerations. But as the Roman armies withdrew to defend Italy, the Belgian plain resumed its normal functions as a high-road for invaders from the East. Belgium no longer faced east, but west, and the old Roman colonies lost their site-value. As the Frankish dominions extended, their frontiers advanced beyond Belgium to the Elbe. Consequently in this period we should expect towns to grow up in places determined by considerations other than

military. The great cities of Flanders, such as Ghent and Bruges, of which we first hear at this time, owed nothing of their increasing importance to their military value. Brussels seems to have owed its origin to its selection by a Frankish king as a country seat. Indeed, there is overwhelming evidence that in the eighth century Belgium was studded with towns, centres of commerce and industry, whose existence had been made possible by the peace and security which the consolidation of the Frankish kingdom had brought. The foundations of the civic glories of the Belgian cities were laid by the Frankish monarchs.

In short, the Belgium over which Charlemagne, greatest of the Frank monarchs, exercised patient and wise dominion, was a part, but an integral and self-contained part, of the Frankish Empire. She had not lost her identity nor her national peculiarities. The population was still a blend of the old Gallo-Roman and the new Teutonic elements. She still preserved her local manners, customs and institutions. Her industries were young, but prosperous and increasing, and the whole machinery of Frankish government was designed to foster and protect them.

The political system of Charlemagne is the key to Belgian history for the next few centuries, and as such commands attention. Belgian history is not concerned with the successive conquests of the great warrior ruler under whom the Frankish Empire, comprising France, the Netherlands, Italy, half Germany, and a large portion of Spain, attained its greatest extent. More important than the size of this Empire were the principles on which it was ruled and held together, and the first of these principles was the maintenance of local privileges and customs. Further, it was quite impossible for any one man to direct the work of administration over so vast an area, and accordingly Charlemagne created a class of military and judicial officers, the Counts, who had authority over the various provinces into which



FLEMISH ILLUMINATED MSS.

Part of a leaf from an Antiphoner. The Feast of St. John the Evangelist. A large initial U, enclosing a picture of the Last Supper. Cusped marginal ornament with goldfinch and dragon. Flemish, early fourteenth century.

Part of a leaf from an Antiphoner of the Abbey of Beaupré. Initial A with a pope and a bishop. Portions of two leaves from the Antiphoner of the Cistercian Abbey of Beaupré, near Grammont. Flemish, 1290.

the Empire was divided. It was inevitable in such circumstances that the count should tend to become independent of the central authority and assume local autocracy, but the Emperor checked such tendencies by sending round other officials to supervise the work of administration and report to himself. He was also indefatigable in making the round of his dominions in person. The weakness of the system lay in the tendency towards decentralization and disruption, its strength in his own statesmanship and force of will.

In 814 A.D. he died, and it was soon seen that his genius alone had held the Empire together. After thirty years his dominions were divided, and Belgium found herself partitioned. The land west of the Scheldt, later known to fame as Flanders, passed to the western, French kingdom, and after a century of debate and varying fortunes the rest passed under the suzerainty of the eastern, German kingdom. Events in Belgium at this period are wrapped in the greatest obscurity, and when we reach the light again, it is to find that the whole country is divided up into separate feudal states, virtually



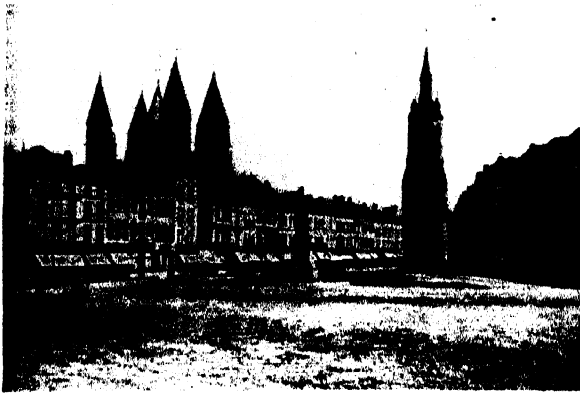
[From a picture by Larivière.

#### THE BATTLE OF MONS-EN-PUEULE (AUGUST, 1304).

The Flemish forces under the command of Philip, a son of the old Guy de Dampierre, gave battle to the French on August 18th, 1304, but the engagement ended in disaster for the Flemings, who were obliged to retire under cover of night.

independent, though owning a shadowy allegiance to French King or German Emperor. For the next four centuries the history of Belgium is the sum of the histories of these separate states, until they all passed once more under the dominion of a single, Burgundian ruler. To realize the nature of the change it is necessary to dwell on the universal political revolution that followed the break-up of Charlemagne's Empire. The great Emperor's successors were men of small intelligence and even less authority. They were unable to control their officials, and one by one the Counts threw off their allegiance and proclaimed their independence in the provinces they governed. Violence and disorder succeeded to the peace and security of the Frankish régime. The gospel of might was openly preached; each man took what he could get, and the only havens of refuge were the great castles, round which peasants and merchants gathered for protection, the towns which were strong enough to defy the robber, and the various ecclesiastical establishments. Feudalism became tolerable as the only palliative to anarchy. Out of the complex of petty principalities which strove for supremacy in this confused and chaotic period, the feudal states of Belgium, to-day provinces of the young kingdom, at length stood clear. These were the counties of Flanders, Hainault and Namur, the duchies of Brabant, Limburg and Luxemburg, and the bishopric of Liège. In each case the ruling family acknowledged the suzerainty of the French kings or the emperors, but the overlordship was purely nominal, and the states enjoyed all the rights and privileges of independence. For three centuries they pursued their varying courses, seeking their own interests, warring with each other and apparently unconscious of national sentiment and tradition. Foreign conquest was necessary to make the Belgians a nation once more.

We may place the establishment of these feudal states at the close of the eleventh century, and their final absorption in the dominions of Burgundy in the middle of the fifteenth. In this period of three



**TOURNAI.—THE GRAND PLACE.**

On the left are to be seen the towers of the fine Romanesque Cathedral. The historic Belfry (towards the right) dates from 1187, but was rebuilt in 1391.



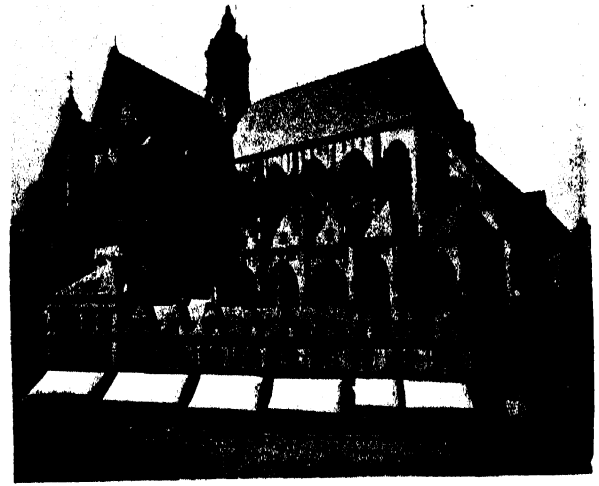
**YPRES.—THE CLOTH HALL.**

This imposing Gothic building, the most considerable of its kind in Belgium, was built between the years 1201 and 1304. It is now unhappily little more than a heap of ruins.



**BRUGES.—THE HÔTEL DE VILLE.**

This beautiful Gothic building, which was constructed between the years 1376 and 1387, is one of the finest medieval town halls in Flanders. It was restored from 1854-1871.



**LOUVAIN.—THE CHURCH OF ST. PETER.**

This fine Gothic church is cruciform in design and was built in the fifteenth century. It is celebrated for possessing a very handsome rood-loft dating from 1490.



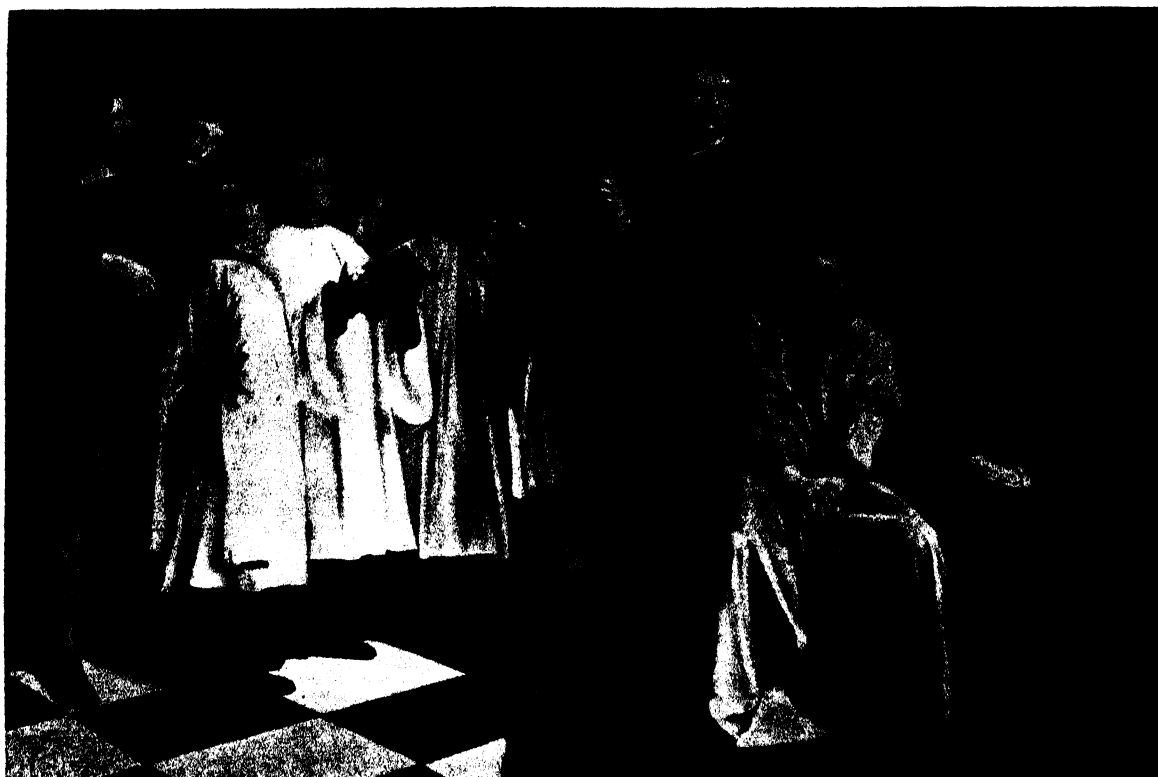
**BRUGES.**

One of the beautiful waterways of the interesting medieval city of Bruges. The octagonal tower which rises above the roofs towards the right belongs to the ancient Belfry.



**GHENT.—THE GRAIN MARKET.**

Ghent, like Bruges, is intersected by a network of canals, which impart a very picturesque touch to many of its old streets. The Grain Market is the most prominent building on the right.



Painted by E. Wauters.]

[Brussels Museum.

## THE MADNESS OF HUGO VAN DER GOES.

The painter Van der Goes, who by intemperance had become subject to fits of insanity, retired to the Monastery of Rouge Cloître, near Ghent. Here the Superior gradually cured him, one of his remedies being to divert his patient's mind from melancholy thoughts by the singing of choristers.

hundred and fifty years it is idle to speak of Belgium and the Belgians. The historian can do no more than trace the history of the separate provinces, treating them as integral units. To do otherwise would be both confusing and misleading, and to miss the real significance of the period.

Flanders was by far the most important of these states. In the reign of Charlemagne it was already one of the most flourishing provinces of the Empire, with prosperous cities and growing industries. Ghent, Bruges and Ypres were already names with which the world was familiar. The first counts governed for the Frankish emperors, but towards the close of the tenth century asserted their independence, and henceforward observed no more than a nominal allegiance. In the year 1006, Count Baldwin IV. captured the imperial town of Valenciennes and retained it as a fief of the Empire. His successors added considerably to their dominions, and even embarked on foreign enterprises. Thus Robert II. greatly distinguished himself on the first Crusade, and Baldwin IX. was the founder of the Latin Empire of Constantinople. Both France and Germany came to realize that a serious rival had arisen in their midst, and for more than a century successive kings of France strove to add the wealthy Flemish provinces to their dominions, but all in vain. Greater antagonists than the ruling family were the flourishing and populous cities, Bruges, Ghent, Ypres, and others, which rose to unprecedented heights of power and influence at this period.

It has often been said that the real glory of Flemish history is the story of its free cities. The word "free" requires some explanation. The growth of the towns was a phenomenon not peculiar to Flanders, but general throughout the Netherlands. They were of course subject to their counts, but in the twelfth century it became customary for the townsmen to buy or extract charters from their lords, the charter being a kind of contract under which the sovereign handed over some of his seignorial rights. The privileges accorded by the charters varied according to the wealth or importance of the town, and the ability of the lord to resist the demands made upon him.

The Flemish counts from the first were inclined to favour the growth of the towns on which their power rested. Thanks to the development of a woollen trade with England and the enormous impulse given to commerce by the Crusades, Bruges and Ghent became the largest and wealthiest towns in Europe, and by the thirteenth century Bruges in particular was the commercial clearing-house of the western world. To secure the invaluable support of these and other cities the counts bartered or gave away nearly all their rights, and the towns became miniature republics, with the privilege of self-government and a highly democratic constitution. At times they formed leagues for the furtherance of their common interests; but the more normal condition was a state of mutual jealousy and suspicion, with intervals of active hostilities. Faction was the rule even within the walls of these commercial republics, and on more than one occasion a city party invited assistance from France in a civic quarrel. Brilliant as is the history of the Flemish communes, their annals are one long record of suicidal dissension.

Such was the glittering bait towards which the French kings turned greedy eyes. Philip Augustus secured possession of Artois in 1198, but failed to make further progress against Count Baldwin IX. In the next century the French met with more success. In 1214 Flanders joined a league of the Emperor, England, Holland and Brabant, which was directed against the growing pretensions of Philip Augustus. At Bouvines the French won a decisive victory, and the terms of peace included clauses which reduced the Counts of Flanders to the status of vassals. For the next eighty years the French were content to rely on the arts of diplomacy and intrigue, for the Flemish counts and nobles showed themselves favourable to the French cause, and the resulting political dissensions with the cities which cherished their own independence promised well for French hopes. At length, in 1300, Philip IV. took prisoner Count Guy de Dampierre and occupied Flanders, making a triumphal entry into Bruges in May, 1301, an occasion made memorable by the remark of his royal consort, Joan of Navarre: "I thought myself sole queen here, but I find a thousand others round me." Next year the citizens, enraged at their treatment by Philip's governor, rose in open revolt, massacred the French garrison and gave the signal for a general



Painted by]

[E. Wauters.]

## THE EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN I. AT GHENT.

Maximilian, Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, by his marriage with Mary of Burgundy, obtained possession of Burgundy and the Burgundian Netherlands. Their son, the baby in the picture, was born at Bruges in July, 1478, and is known to history as Philip the Handsome. His marriage in 1496 to Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, started the connection of Belgium with Spain.



uprising of the Flemish cities. The army of artisans and tradesmen who assembled under the civic banners provoked the laughter of the force sent against them by Philip, but, nevertheless, the flower of French chivalry was almost exterminated by the burghers at the Battle of Courtrai on July 11th, 1302.

This amazing triumph had far-reaching consequences. It did not result in the immediate expulsion of the French, but it had shown that the artisans were a match and more than a match for the French and Flemish nobility. Thenceforward the cities became more turbulent and quarrelsome than ever. The successes gained against the French were counterbalanced by a disastrous war with Holland, and the forces of disunion were soon at work again. Bruges had taken the most prominent part at Courtrai, but its influence was weakened by its war with Ghent and the defeat of the communes at Cassel in 1328, and in 1335 Ghent, under the famous Jacob van Artevelde, "The Brewer of Ghent,"



*Painted by P. Verhaert.*

*[Hôtel de Ville, Antwerp.]*

#### THE BURGOMASTER OF ANTWERP WELCOMING THE SHIP CAPTAINS, 1508.

In the early years of the sixteenth century Antwerp was probably the most prosperous trading city in Europe, and its opulence was not even exceeded by that of Venice. Many thousands of ships visited the city from all parts of the world in the course of the year. The burgomaster is represented in the picture offering a welcoming hand to the captains of ships who had opened a trade with the Canaries.

became the leading city in Flanders. The French were then engaged in a war with England, and Artevelde concluded an alliance with the English King Edward III. For nine years the Brewer of Ghent exercised almost autocratic powers in Flanders, though he was quite unable to quell the dissensions of the cities. The English alliance was the work of a party and unpopular with half the Flemings, and the Count, Louis I., was only seeking a favourable moment to re-establish his authority with the assistance of the French. In 1345 Artevelde was killed in a popular insurrection inspired by his enemies in Ghent, and the country was once more given over to civil discord. Both Ghent and Bruges at first refused to receive Count Louis II., but in 1379 Bruges discovered that it hated Ghent more than it hated the Count, and open war broke out between the two cities. Louis called in the French and the men of Ghent were utterly routed at the Battle of Roosebeke on November 27th, 1382. With this disaster ended the palmy days of the communes. Bruges had already fallen from its high estate. The other cities longed for peace, and when Louis died, in 1384, his son-in-law, Philip the Bold of Burgundy, was accepted as



Courtrai.—Council Chamber, Town Hall. This room contains a richly-carved chimney-piece, dating before 1527. The central figure is that of Charles V., between Justice and the Infanta Isabella.



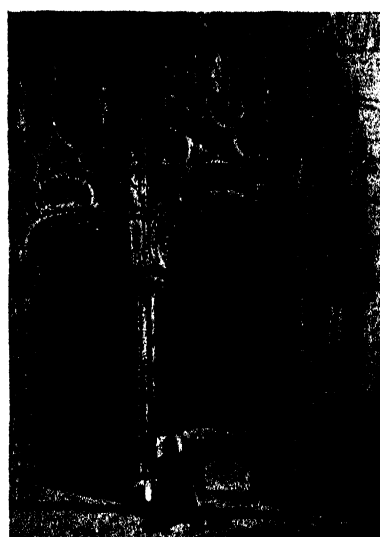
Antwerp.—Marriage Room, Town Hall. The chimney-piece in this apartment is one of those beautiful specimens of the sculptor's art for which the civic buildings of Belgium are so justly celebrated.



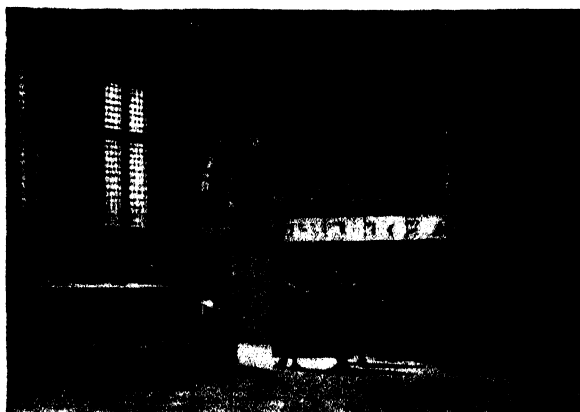
Oudenarde.—The Portal of the Council Chamber in the Town Hall. The famous doorway of this room is in the Renaissance style of the sixteenth century and the work of Paul van Schelden.



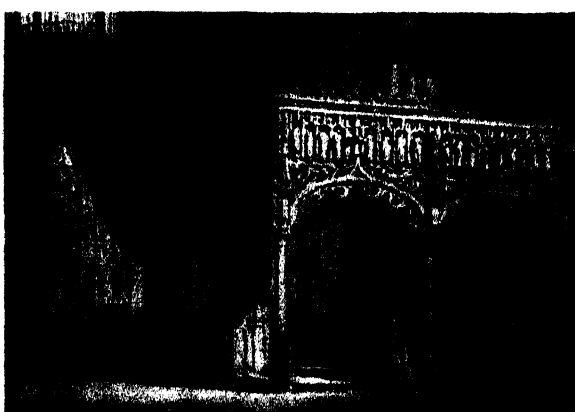
Antwerp.—The Chapel of the Dukes of Burgundy. The scene depicted is that of a wedding in this small but beautiful Gothic chapel in the residence of the Dukes of Burgundy at Antwerp.



Dixmude.—Screen in the Parish Church. This rood-loft, which dates from the beginning of the sixteenth century, is in the most elaborate Flamboyant style and one of the chief attractions of the town.



Bruges.—Court Room, Palace of Justice. This magnificent Renaissance chimney-piece is considered to be the finest in Belgium. The carved figures represent Charles V. and his ancestors.



Louvain.—Screen in the Church of St. Peter. A fine specimen of a late Gothic rood-loft or screen, a portion only of which is shown in the picture. It dates from 1490.

#### INTERIORS OF SOME BELGIAN CHURCHES AND TOWN HALLS



Painted by Dejuris.]

[Hôtel de Ville, Antwerp.]

#### QUENTIN MATSYS RECEIVED BY THE GUILD OF ST. LUKE AT ANTWERP.

Matsys was the son of a prosperous smith, but he became a painter, because the lady of his choice refused to marry any but an artist. He was honoured by the acquaintance of the Emperor Maximilian, Thomas More, Holbein and Dürer, and he first brought repute to the Painters' Guild of Antwerp. His death in 1530 concluded the first era of the great Flemish painters.

count, and Flanders was incorporated into that great duchy. The cities, proud and turbulent as ever, remained to worry the new ruler, but Flanders as an independent state ceased to exist.

Meanwhile the other states of Belgium were also well on the road to absorption in the Burgundian duchy. None of them rose to the heights of national and civic splendour attained by Flanders, and their achievements are dwarfed by the exploits of their brilliant rival. Nevertheless, their histories, as illustrating the spirit of medieval life and politics, are not without interest. Brabant, second in importance only to Flanders, long maintained a vigorous independence under a line of counts and dukes, of whom the first was Godfrey the Bearded. Though less wealthy and populous than Flanders, it offered a tempting prize to greedy neighbours, and its integrity was only established after the Battle of Woeringen in 1288, when John I. defeated a motley host led by the Counts of Luxemburg and Gelderland and the Archbishop of Cologne. Thenceforward Brabant passed through the same phase as Flanders. The cities, of which the chief were Brussels and Louvain, enjoyed charters hardly less generous than those of Ghent and Bruges, and rebellions against the authority of the dukes were frequent. Just as the Flemish counts turned to France for aid against the communes, so in 1383 the Duchess Joanna turned to Burgundy for support against the cities of Brabant. She made the Duke of Burgundy her heir, and in 1430 Philip the Good, grandson of that Philip the Bold whom we have already seen installed as Count of Flanders, added Burgundy to his dominions on the death of his cousin.

The county of Hainault dates from the break-up of the Carolingian Empire, though there is some reason to believe that it enjoyed a certain degree of independence a century earlier. The nobility, who were the ruling class, may have elected their ruler at that period, but by the tenth century the dignity had become hereditary. Count John of Avennes became Count of Holland also about 1299, and for fifty years the two states were in the same family, a political disposition resulting in incessant wars with Flanders, which was thus threatened simultaneously from north and south. For the next hundred years Hainault was ruled by the royal house of Bavaria, an unfortunate line, which terminates in the romantic and pathetic figure of Jacqueline. This lady succeeded at the age of seventeen to the sovereignty of Hainault, and the Dutch provinces of Holland, Zeeland and Friesland. She had the misfortune to be the cousin of Philip the Good of Burgundy, who, by a series of intrigues, threats and hostile actions, forced her to yield up all her possessions to him in 1428.

Only one other of the Belgian provinces calls for special mention, not for its intrinsic importance, but because it presents one feature of novelty. This was Liège, of which the capital was the city of the same name, which had become the seat of a bishopric in the eighth century. In the next century the bishops became feudal potentates, and, as such, were constantly embroiled in bitter and bloody conflicts with the citizens. It was only after three centuries that a fairly generous charter was won by the townsmen. In the middle of the fifteenth century Philip the Good secured the bishopric of Liège for a bastard son, and in 1468 his son Charles the Bold quelled a violent revolt of the citizens and added Liège to his dominions.

Thus, one by one, the states of Belgium lost their identity and merged in the great Duchy of Burgundy. It will now be seen that the change which then seemed the exchange of independence for an alien yoke was destined to silence local jealousies and kindle the ancient flame of national sentiment. The primary aim of the Burgundian dukes was to establish a strong central kingdom ; but their desires in this respect were qualified by their secondary aim of keeping their new subjects happy and prosperous. Their

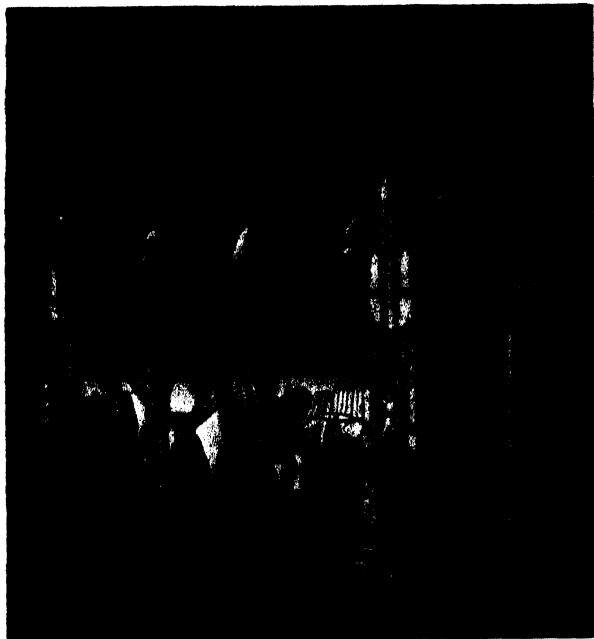


*Painted by F. Boom.*

*[Hôtel de Ville, Antwerp.]*

## THE OPENING OF THE ANTWERP EXCHANGE, 1532.

In this fine specimen of modern Flemish art, the painter has reconstructed with fidelity the inaugural ceremony of the new Antwerp Exchange in 1532. Everyone looks prosperous, the magistrates, chief officers and merchant princes, for it was during this period the town reached the zenith of its pride.



THE SHRINE OF ST. URSULA, BRUGES.

This famous casket, which contains a relic of the saint, is preserved in the Hospital of St. John, Bruges, and is decorated with eight exquisite panels by Hans Memlinc, six of which depict scenes in the life of Saint Ursula.



DOORWAY OF ST PETER'S CHURCH, LOUVAIN.

This church, the most important in Louvain, is celebrated for its beautiful wood-carving. The chief doorway, illustrated above, is a magnificent specimen of the wood-carver's art; it belongs to the late Renaissance period and dates from

motives were by no means philanthropic and humanitarian, but inspired by the knowledge that the wealth of the Belgian cities was the mainstay of their power. Accordingly Philip the Good, after curtailing or annulling almost all the privileges of Ghent and Bruges, established himself in the latter city, and maintained a court which was a byword for luxury and magnificence. The Flemings liked show and lavish expenditure, and appreciated the compliment paid to them when Philip established the Order of the Golden Fleece in 1430.

In addition, this powerful prince and the nobles, who were not slow to follow his example of luxury, were munificent patrons of art, and the Flemish painters and tapestry weavers were renowned throughout the civilized world. The brothers van Eyck, Roger van der Weyden and Memlinc, were the first of a great school of native painters whose achievements are in every way worthy to stand in line with those of the Italian Renaissance. The Netherlandish gold and silver workers enjoyed a reputation equal, if not superior, to that of the Bavarians. Learning, too, received an immense impetus. Universities were founded and scholars and historians flourished, to whom students from all parts of Europe flocked for instruction. If the Burgundian House had succeeded in its designs and established the great central kingdom, which was its ultimate ambition, that kingdom would have been not merely the wealthiest and most powerful, but the most civilized and enlightened in the world.

Unfortunately Charles the Bold, who succeeded his father Philip in 1467, had little of his father's patience and statesmanship. He made light of the open hostility of France under the crafty Louis XI., and at once plunged into risky enterprises of conquest in which failure was bound to mean disaster. Further, he wasted the vast treasure which his father had accumulated, and aroused the opposition of the Belgian cities and nobility by his exactions and overbearing manner. The standing army which he organized seemed to be a permanent menace to what remained of their ancient liberties, though it enabled him to conduct a series of successful campaigns against France in the opening years of his reign. The bold Charles grew bolder with each victory, and in 1476 he set out to conquer

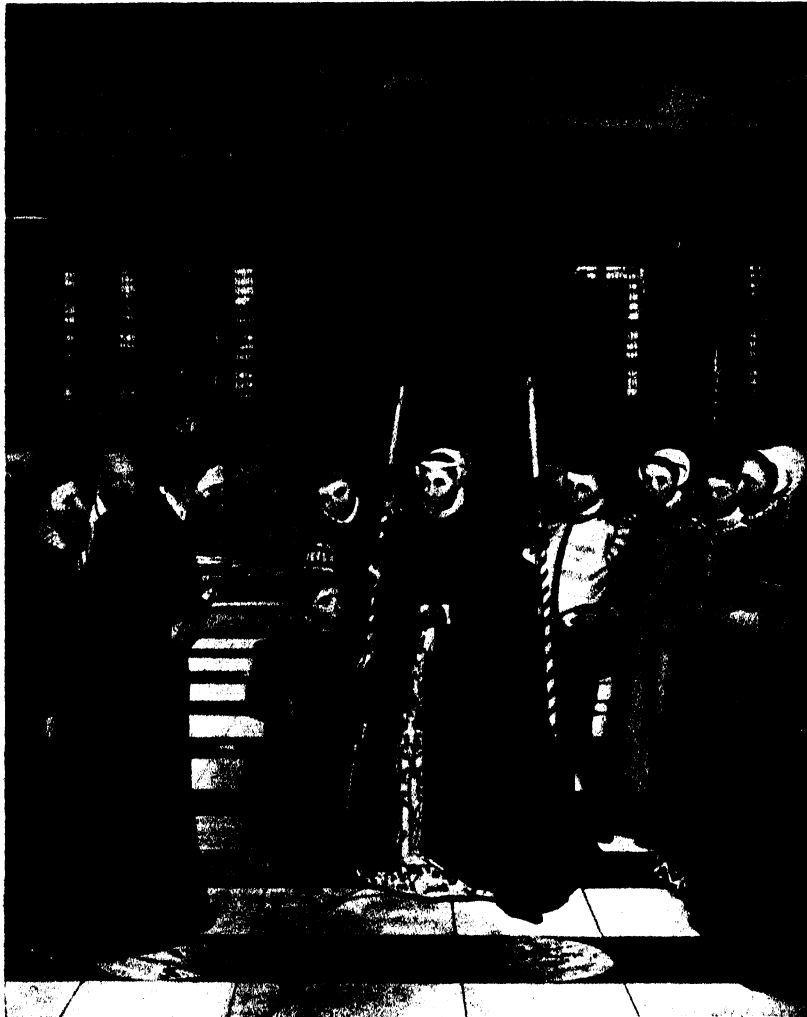


*Painted by Makart.*

THE ENTRY OF CHARLES V. INTO ANTWERP.

*[Kunsthal, Hamburg.*

Charles V. inherited the Netherlands and Burgundy from his father, Philip the Handsome—son of the Emperor Maximilian and Mary of Burgundy—also Spain from his mother Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. On the death of Maximilian in 1519 he was elected Holy Roman Emperor. The painter has depicted the triumphant entry of Charles into the city of Antwerp.

Painted by *Leyns*.

[Hotel de Ville, Antwerp.]

#### THE KEYS OF ANTWERP DELIVERED TO MARGARET OF PARMA.

Margaret of Parma, natural daughter of the Emperor Charles V., was created Regent of the Netherlands by her half-brother Philip II. in 1559. She retired in 1567, when Philip sent the Duke of Alva to the Low Countries with orders to extirpate the Protestant religion. He carried out his mission relentlessly, although Margaret, herself a Catholic, remonstrated in vain to her bigoted brother and the new governor.

The only bond of union between the Belgian provinces was the Grand Council, which had been established by Philip the Good, and which was composed of deputies from each state. Once the "Great Privilege" had been won, the cities resumed their ancient feuds, and were unable to offer any serious resistance when the marriage of Mary to Maximilian of Austria in 1477 brought the country under the domination of the House of Hapsburg. In 1494 Maximilian became emperor, and his dominions in the Netherlands devolved on his son Philip the Handsome, who promised to observe only those charters which had been recognized by the Burgundian rulers. The "Great Privilege" was abandoned by the cities which accepted, without acquiescing in, the new order, and only awaited a favourable moment to recover what they had lost. In 1496 Philip's marriage to Joanna of Aragon was an event of the greatest importance, for ten years later he succeeded, in right of his wife, to the crown of Castile and the Belgian provinces became an outlying portion of the Spanish kingdom. The nature of this change, so vital to the whole course of Belgian history, was for long concealed by the personal weakness of Philip and the statesmanship of his son and successor Charles, later and better known as the Emperor Charles V. At the age of fifteen Charles found himself ruler of the Netherlands, at sixteen, lord of Spain, with its

Switzerland and met with crushing defeats, the last and most complete being at Nancy in 1477, where Charles himself was killed.

With his death the Burgundian state, built up by a century of political genius, seemed threatened with dissolution. The new ruler, Mary, was a girl of twenty, and both Louis XI. of France and the Belgian cities saw occasion to profit by her embarrassments. In return for support against France the old states compelled her to grant them the "Great Privilege," which restored their ancient liberties and reduced her to the position of a constitutional sovereign hedged about with all manner of restrictions. Ghent and Bruges anticipated that they would speedily recover the supremacy lost at the battle of Roosebeke; but conditions had changed. In the first place, the decay of the wool trade with England had struck a heavy blow at the prosperity of the Flemish towns. Antwerp and Brussels were coming into prominence as successful rivals, and their historic jealousies prevented united action on an extensive scale.

immense Italian and colonial possessions, and at twenty, emperor. His task of governing so many peoples and harmonizing so many conflicting aims and interests was far from enviable, but he brought to it gifts of body and mind which were remarkable even in an age of great personalities. As he was unable to reside himself in the Netherlands, he handed over the government of the province to his regents, first Margaret of Austria, and then Mary of Hungary, women of marked ability. The regency of Margaret of Austria was one of the happiest and most prosperous periods of Belgian history. Bruges and Ghent did not regain their ancient splendour, but Brussels, and particularly Antwerp, took their place with honour. Margaret was scrupulously careful to avoid offending the prejudices of the Netherlands by appointing Spaniards or other foreigners to positions of importance in the government, and her universal popularity was well earned. Mary of Hungary, who succeeded to the regency in 1530, enjoyed less personal prestige than her predecessor, and through her Charles exercised a more direct influence than before. His policy of toleration was gradually changing as religious fanaticism triumphed over his sure political instincts. He had been horrified at the rapid spread of Protestant heresy in Germany and the Netherlands, and was resolved to stamp out the Reformation in his dominions. The first intimation of his resolution was a series of edicts by which heretics were condemned to be burned alive. The vigour with which these edicts were put into execution roused a storm of opposition even in the Belgian provinces where the Reformation had made little headway, and a deep discontent succeeded to the tranquillity which had marked the earlier years of his rule.

Discontent changed to a fiercer passion after Charles abdicated in 1555, and was succeeded by his son Philip, a Spaniard, who had no ties of blood or interest to commend him to his Netherland subjects. For the moment the conditions of 1477 were repeated. He found himself at war with France, and in desperate need of men and money. He turned to the Belgian states for both. His armies, led by a



*Painted by De Bieffe.*

[Brussels Museum.]

## THE TREATY OF THE NOBLES OF THE NETHERLANDS.

Hoorn is signing the treaty, while his great associate Egmont is seated to the left. On the arrival of Alva, Egmont was arrested, and later executed with Hoorn and many other nobles.



Flemish nobleman, the Count of Egmont, achieved notable successes over the French, and he financed them with levies on the Belgian cities. As soon as the campaign was concluded, however, the new ruler showed his hand. He devised a scheme of taxation on a new and more extensive scale, and was met with a flat refusal. He insulted the nobility by allowing them no part in the work of government, appointed Spaniards in their place, and kept a Spanish army in the country to secure obedience to his decrees. Meanwhile the work of burning heretics proceeded apace. All real authority was in the hands of a council of three ministers, his own special creatures, one of whom was the notorious Cardinal Granville. The country was seething with indignation, and the opposition was headed by the nobles, among whom the most prominent were William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, Egmont, and Count Hoorn. Philip at length recognized that he had raised a storm. The Spanish soldiers were withdrawn, and in



Painted by L. Gallier.]

[Antwerp Museum.

THE BRUSSELS GUILD OF MARKSMEN PAYING THEIR LAST HONOURS TO THE COUNTS  
EGMONT AND HOORN.

These brave champions of Flemish liberties were beheaded in the Grande Place, Brussels, on June 5th, 1568. Notwithstanding the menace of the troops, the people could not restrain their execrations at the infamy of the crime. The painter has depicted the Brussels Guild of Marksmen paying the last honours to the victims of Alva's cruelty.

1564 Granville was dismissed, but the persecution of heretics became fiercer than ever. Heresy, however, thrived on its fiery trials, and the nobles and officials refused their assistance in carrying out the infamous edicts.

Philip was exasperated, but determined, and in 1567 dispatched the Duke of Alva, with a veteran Spanish force, to crush all opposition. When Alva arrived in Brussels the cause of Belgian liberty seemed lost. His first steps were to seize Egmont and Hoorn, outlaw William of Orange, who had fled from the country, and establish a "Council of Blood," which dealt summarily with heretics and rebels. The nobles now raised the standard of revolt. Alva promptly executed Egmont and Hoorn, and by 1572 had crushed the last attempt of William of Orange and his brother Louis to invade the southern provinces of the Netherlands. In the north, however, the Spaniards met with less success, and in 1573 Alva resigned and returned to Spain. The war, with fitful intervals, dragged on. The northern provinces,



*From the painting*

#### ALVA'S STATUE BEING DRAGGED THROUGH THE STREETS OF ANTWERP.

That the recall of Alva should have been received with so much rejoicing by the people of the Netherlands is hardly surprising. On his return to Spain he is said to have boasted that he had sent more than eighteen thousand people to their death. The most revolting forms of torture were in common use, and even women and children were put to death. Small wonder, then, that the burghers gave vent to their feelings when Alva's statue was dragged through the streets of Antwerp.

*[By C. Verel.*



INTERIOR OF ST. ROMBAUT, MALINES.

St. Rombaut is one of the finest Gothic cathedrals in Europe. It dates from the twelfth century, but was largely rebuilt in the fifteenth after a fire. It contains an altarpiece by Van Dyck, and a seventeenth-century pulpit of oak.



INTERIOR OF ST. PIERRE, LOUVAIN.

The church of St. Pierre was begun in 1423, and finished early in the sixteenth century. It has an elaborately carved pulpit and a beautiful rood-loft, before which a wrought iron chandelier, the work of Quentin Matsys, hangs.

led by Holland and Zealand, which had made William their "stadtholder," or governor, were bent on complete independence, while the Belgian provinces, in which Calvinism was unpopular, aimed only at the recovery of their ancient liberties, religious toleration, and the expulsion of the foreign mercenaries. The year 1576 was marked by a great mutiny of the Spanish troops in the course of which Antwerp was ruthlessly sacked, a tragedy which resulted in the conclusion of an alliance between the Dutch and Belgian provinces. The deputies drew up the "Pacification of Ghent," an agreement to recognize the sovereignty of Philip, but to secure religious toleration and the withdrawal of the Spanish troops. The agreement was confirmed by the "Union of Brussels," and for a moment it seemed that the ancient dream of a united Netherland state was about to be realized. The new Spanish governor, Don John of Austria, accepted the Pacification of Ghent, and it was confirmed by his imperial master. No sooner was this success achieved, than dissensions appeared in the ranks of the patriots. Not only were the southern Belgian, Catholic, provinces at heart unsympathetic to the northern Dutch, Protestant, provinces, but even within the southern provinces the Walloon and Flemish elements were far from harmonious. The ancient cities of Flanders and Brabant had fast declined in prosperity during the century. The religious persecutions had driven thousands of industrious craftsmen to take shelter in England, and heavy taxation and insecurity were thwarting all commercial activities. Flanders had never forgotten its ancient feuds with Holland, religious feeling ran high, and only the personality of William the Silent had been able to overcome these obstacles to united action. How frail was the union was shown the same year when Don John, a diplomatist of no mean order, ingratiated himself with the deputies of the Walloon provinces, which withdrew from the league. The war broke out afresh. The patriots seized Antwerp and Ghent, and razed their fortifications to the ground, but met with annihilation at the battle of Gembloux. The southern provinces were divided in counsel, some calling in the help of a French prince, others turning for aid to a German state. In 1579 the seven northern

provinces virtually proclaimed their independence by the famous "Union of Utrecht," but fate had already decreed that the Belgian provinces should not sever their connection with the Spanish Empire. Philip had set his heart on their recovery, and to that end sent forth his greatest statesman and warrior, the renowned Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma. For the first time William met an antagonist in every way worthy of him. Parma's diplomatic skill soon won back the Walloon provinces to their allegiance. One by one the cities were detached from the alliance. In 1584 the assassination of William the Silent relieved him of the greatest obstacle to success, and with his triumphant siege of Antwerp next year Spanish authority was firmly re-established in the Belgian Netherlands. It was in Flanders that Parma assembled the great host which the luckless invincible Armada was to convoy to England, and it was from Flanders that he set out to assist the French Catholics against Henry of Navarre. His death in 1592 might almost be said to have sealed the work of his life, for he was accorded a public funeral in Brussels, the occasion being remarkable for a widespread and genuine expression of popular regret. It is not too much to say that his genius had recovered the Belgian provinces when separation from Spain had seemed inevitable.

Spanish domination in Belgium lasted until the year 1713, a period in which the provinces, sharing the fate of the empire, steadily declined in prosperity and importance. Its geographical position contributed, as ever, to its misfortunes. The Dutch, having thrown over the Spanish dominion and won their independence, were anxious to secure their southern frontier and the possession of the Flemish coast. For years the towns of northern and western Belgium were captured and recaptured, occupied and reoccupied by the Spanish and Dutch. The towns of the south and south-west were coveted with no less ardour by the French. The most fertile portions of the country were given over to the ravages of armies, and the excessive taxation of the Spanish rulers completed the ruin of its once flourishing trade.



*Painted by F. De Braeckeleer.*

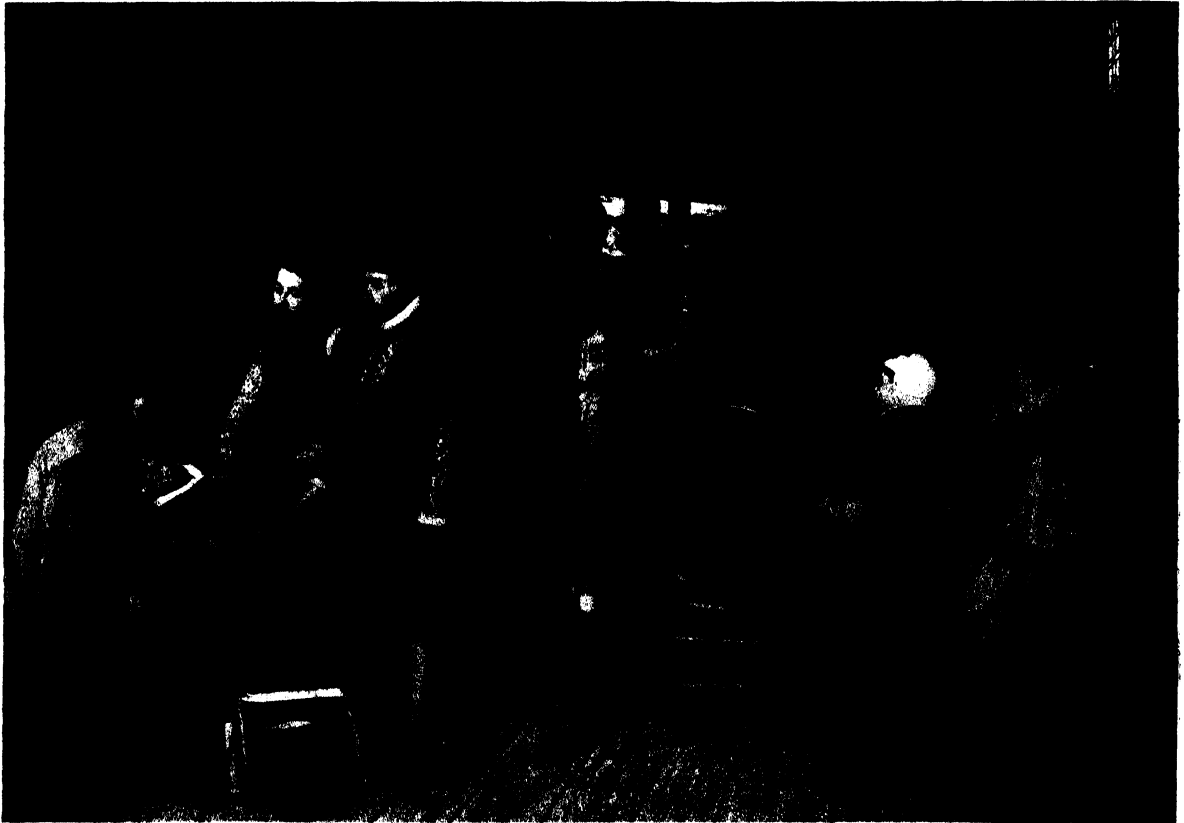
[Antwerp Museum.]

## EPISODE OF THE SPANISH FURY (ANTWERP, NOVEMBER, 1576).

The downfall of Alva's rule in this city was due in a great measure to the mutiny of the Spanish garrison, who, not receiving their pay, sacked the city which they were supposed to guard. For three days the Spanish fury raged; more than six thousand men, women and children were killed, and eight hundred houses destroyed by fire.

The seventeenth century, indeed, in Belgium, presents the piteous spectacle of a land with a brilliant past sinking into political insignificance, save as a playground or battleground for its neighbours, and living on the genius of Rubens and the memories of its former greatness.

At the outset of this unhappy period there was momentarily a promise of brighter things. The death of Parma proved an asset of the greatest value to King Henry of France, who soon entered into an alliance with England and the Dutch provinces, and in 1597 obtained a series of successes against the Spaniards on his north-eastern frontier. Next year a peace was concluded by which Belgium was given as an independent kingdom to the Archduke Albert, whom Philip had appointed to succeed Parma, and who was to marry his daughter Isabella. The terms of peace also provided that on failure of heirs the sovereignty was to lapse to the Spanish Crown. This event actually happened in 1633 on the death



*Painted by Leys.*

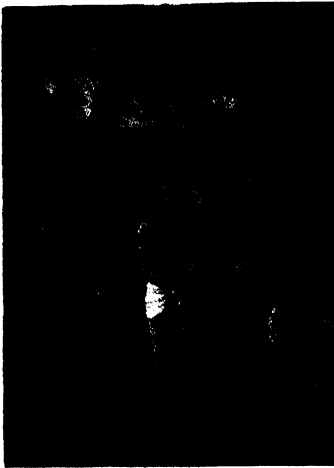
THE STUDIO OF THE PAINTER FRANS FLORIS.

*[Brussels Museum.]*

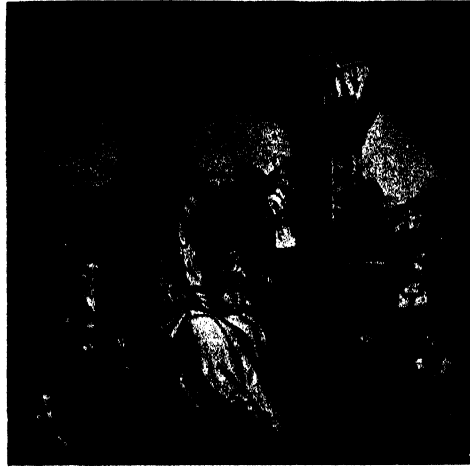
Frans De Vrient, commonly known as Frans Floris, was a native of Antwerp, and remarkable for the facility with which he worked. This gift was displayed in the designing and execution of the triumphal arches for the visit of Charles V. to Antwerp in 1549. Much esteemed as a painter, he founded an important school of painting.

of Isabella. Albert had died in 1621, having shown himself a good ruler, and anxious to restore the prosperity of his kingdom.

With the reimposition of Spanish domination Belgium's miseries progressively increased. The land was eagerly coveted, both by France and Holland, which frequently took concerted action to drive out the Spaniards. Between 1630 and 1640, indeed, the situation was extremely critical, and it was only the vigour and military skill of the Spanish governor, the Archduke Ferdinand, which prevented the country from being partitioned between its northern and southern neighbours. Even more disastrous than the Dutch war with Spain was the Dutch peace with Spain. In 1648, by the Peace of Münster, Philip IV. of Spain recognized the independence of the Dutch provinces, and admitted their claim that the Scheldt should be closed to all ships but their own. At one stroke such Belgian commerce as had survived the incessant wars was completely ruined. Antwerp, once the greatest seaport in the world,



The Baptism of Christ, by Gerard David (1450?-1523).—A later master of the early Flemish school. His name has but recently received recognition.



The Legend of St. Anne, by Quentin Matsys (1466?-1530).—Matsys was the last of the great early Flemish painters. His work is highly finished and more natural and graceful than that of his predecessors.



The Descent from the Cross, by Peter Paul Rubens (1577-1640).—One of the finest paintings of this great master of the later Flemish school.



Portrait of a Boy, by Anthony Van Dyck (1599-1641).—A characteristic example of one of Van Dyck's unrivalled portraits.



The Adoration of the Lamb that was Slain, by the brothers Hubert and Jan Van Eyck.—The centre panel of the masterpiece by two of the earliest painters in oils. The colouring is as brilliant as on the day it was painted and the work is distinguished for its fine composition. It was commenced by Hubert the elder (1370-1426) and finished by Jan (1389-1440).



The Adoration of the Magi, by Hans Memlinc (1440?-1494). in St. John's Hospital, Bruges.—This is the centre portion of a triptych. Memlinc is best known by his religious pictures, but he painted some excellent portraits.



Altarpiece, by Jan Van Eyck.—This famous altarpiece was painted for George Van der Palen, the donor, who appears in the foreground; on the left is St. Donatian, centre The Madonna, right St. George in armour. The original is at Bruges.



THE EXAMINATION HALL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUVAIN.

The University was founded in 1426 by Duke John IV. of Brabant. It reached the height of its fame when Justus Lipsius taught there. In his day there were six thousand students. The University was suppressed by the French in 1797, but reopened as a free and independent Roman Catholic University in 1836.

sank into decay. Bruges and Ghent became sleepy country towns, where the voice of human industry was no longer heard.

Another effect of the rapprochement between the Spaniards and the Dutch was to intensify the ancient feud between the former and the French. The acquisition of Belgium was henceforth a cardinal precept of French foreign policy, and by a succession of wars, concluded by the treaties of the Pyrenees in 1659, of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668, of Nymwegen in 1679, and of Ryswick in 1697, large tracts of territory in southern Belgium were successively added to the dominions of Louis XIV. The conquest of the whole country, however, was prevented by the statesmanship of the Dutch Stadtholder, William III., who had become King of England in 1689, and was the moving spirit of the great alliance which frustrated the realization of Louis' ambitions. The ruler of the Belgian provinces at this critical period was Maximilian Emanuel of Bavaria, who had been appointed governor by Charles II. of Spain. He was a man of considerable ability and openly sympathetic to his subjects, his sympathy taking the eminently practical form of attempts to revive the commercial prosperity of the country. His efforts, however, were perpetually hampered by the jealousy of the Dutch, who had no wish to see the revival of the Belgian seaports at the expense of their own. They insisted on their complete control of the Scheldt, and the best that Maximilian could do was to construct a large number of canals to provide facilities of transport and means of communication. The condition of the Belgian provinces sensibly improved, until in 1700 Charles II. died, and Louis XIV. immediately laid claim to the vacant throne for his grandson, while the Emperor Leopold I. put in a claim for his son, the Archduke Charles. The conflicting claims could only be settled by force of arms, and another war, memorable as the War of the

Spanish Succession, broke out in 1701. The Spanish themselves accepted the French prince, who was crowned as Philip V., but England, Holland and Austria were resolved that Belgium should not pass under French influence. The war lasted twelve years, during the greater part of which military operations were taking place on Belgian soil to the obvious detriment of the country. Marlborough's great victories at Ramillies, Oudenarde and Malplaquet, names so grateful to the ear of the Englishman or Dutchman, spelt further disaster and misery to the unhappy Belgians. In Belgium itself opinion was divided, but men of all parties longed for peace and security. Even through these evil days of foreign subjection the ancient flame of liberty still burned. The Spanish, as the Burgundian, ruler had been compelled to recognize local rights and franchises, and the States-General had continued to exist as a national institution.

In 1713 the Peace of Utrecht ended the War of the Spanish Succession, and brought yet another change of domination to Belgium. The French had been driven out of the country, but Philip V. had made good his title to be King of Spain, and the crowns of both France and Spain were in the Bourbon family. As an offset to this Bourbon preponderance the Spanish Empire was partitioned, and the Netherlands assigned to the House of Austria in the person of the Emperor Charles VI. The Austrians were destined to display no small skill in the art of governing subject races, but at the outset the omens in Belgium were far from favourable. In the first place, the terms of peace restored to Belgium some of the barrier fortresses which Louis XIV. had seized; but the right to garrison them was also restored to the Dutch, who waived none of the commercial advantages they had secured in the previous century. Belgian prosperity was still to be subordinated to Dutch convenience. Thus all the attempts of the Austrian



*From the painting]*

**RUBENS IN HIS GARDEN.**

*[By J. van Brée.]*

Peter Paul Rubens was born at Siegen, in Westphalia, on June 29th, 1577. His father having died, Rubens went with his mother to Antwerp when barely ten years old. He was first apprenticed to the painter Tobias Verhaecht, and afterwards to Van Noort. The picture represents Rubens with his wife and child in the garden of their home at Antwerp.



governor to make Ostend into a great seaport met with open hostility from the northern neighbour, and had to be abandoned. Further, the Austrian governor almost immediately came into collision with the popular party in Belgium, who resented the manner in which he ignored their ancient rights and institutions. In 1719 a revolt occurred in Brussels, which was vigorously suppressed by the Austrians, and its leader, Anneesens, was executed. The incident was not forgotten by the Belgians, who canonized Anneesens as a martyr and looked forward to a day of vengeance.

This "day," however, was to be postponed for sixty years, thanks to the vigour, ability and tact of the Austrian rulers. The danger from France had by no means passed away, as was abundantly proved



*From the painting]*

#### THE DEATH OF RUBENS.

*[By J. van Brée.*

The great painter died at Antwerp on the 30th of May, 1640, at the age of sixty-three. More fortunate than many artists, he passed away at the height of his fame. In the picture the last moments of his life are depicted. A priest is reciting prayers, whilst Rubens' young wife, Helen Fourment, so often painted by him, falls in a swoon.

during the War of the Austrian Succession, when the French recovered the Flemish fortresses, won some important successes, and governed the country from 1746 to 1748. In the latter year the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Belgium to the Austrians, and a new era opened for the distracted land. The Austrian governor, Charles of Lorraine, was a brother-in-law of the Empress Maria Theresa, and a man of wide sympathies and great ability. He lent his powerful support to every branch of national activity, encouraged commerce, and devised ways and means of repairing the ravages of successive wars. Himself an alien, he proved a true friend to the Belgians, and during his long rule of forty years the agitation for independence largely died down.

With his death, however, Belgium's sorrows recommenced. The Empress Maria Theresa was succeeded by her son Joseph II., one of the most pathetic figures in history. A man of great sincerity



*From the painting*

#### THE ENEMY APPROACHING.

Situated as Belgium is, between two of the greatest Continental powers of Europe, war has been a continual menace to the country. The scene depicted is a village green on which the peasantry are gathered within hearing of the thud of distant gunfire. All seem unable to decide from whence the sound comes. But whilst the distracted civilians decide to fly for refuge, a soldier stands calmly feeling the edge of his sword in anticipation of the arrival of Louis XIV's troops.

*[By J. Lico.]*



THE BATTLE OF MALPLAQUET, 1709.

In the War of the Spanish Succession, Belgium was the main theatre of operations. England, Holland and Austria were in alliance to prevent the Spanish Netherlands from falling under French influence. Though victorious at Malplaquet, the allies suffered severe losses. The French positions were naturally strong, and further advantage was gained by placing felled trees, with their branches towards the enemy, in front of the trenches.

and earnestness, he was possessed by a zeal for reform, a passion which led him into all manner of political experiments and thence into collision with all who suffered from his well-intentioned activities. He took a personal interest in the welfare of his dominions, but in a not unnatural desire to bring the machinery of government thoroughly up to date he forgot the conservative instincts of many of his subjects, and notably the Belgians. In so doing he nullified the popularity he had gained in Belgium by securing the withdrawal of the Dutch garrisons. His real crime in the eyes of the Belgians, however, was his attempt at ecclesiastical reform.

It must be admitted that the Belgian Church at this period stood in urgent need of correction and supervision, but the correction proposed by Joseph II. was of a more stringent kind than the circumstances warranted. There were wholesale expulsions of the clergy and many of the ecclesiastical establishments were closed. The populace, a byword for rigid orthodoxy, rallied round the evicted priests. In 1789, the year of the outbreak of the French Revolution, a revolt occurred in the provinces of Flanders and Brabant. The states of these two provinces suddenly refused to vote further taxes, and their refusal was emphasized by a general rising, which quickly assumed the aspect of a holy war. The Austrians were alarmed, but underrating the strength of the patriot forces were undeceived and routed at the battle of Turnhout. The provinces immediately threw off their allegiance to Joseph, proclaimed their independence, and invited assistance from Holland and France.

Neither of these powers responded, and when the Austrians returned in 1790 the popular armies were speedily scattered and the revolt collapsed. The Austrians displayed surprising magnanimity under the circumstances, but their triumph was short-lived. One of the first acts of the new French republic was to make an attack on the Austrian Netherlands. The undertaking was inspired by two considera-

tions—one, that, strategically, Belgium invited the invader; the other, that the invader with his revolutionary gospel was going among the half-converted. The soundness of both these considerations was demonstrated by the result, for the Austrians were driven out of the country after sustaining severe reverses at Jemappes in 1793 and Fleurus in 1794 and the inhabitants of the invaded territories in great part received the French as liberators. By the treaty of Campo Formio in 1797 Belgium was officially incorporated in France, and for the next seventeen years Belgian history is identical with that of France. Napoleon was quick to seize the military advantages involved in the possession of the country, and his remark on Antwerp as “a pistol pointed at the heart of England” has passed into history.

It must not be imagined, however, that national feeling in Belgium was otherwise than dormant during this period. The Flemish, particularly, opposed a strong resistance to the gallicizing influences which followed the French invasion. Belgium received French government, French law and even the French tongue, but her sentiments remained her own, and her sentiments were purely Belgian.

The second fall of Napoleon in 1815 brought the Powers of Europe face to face with the problem of Belgium's future, and they approached it in characteristic fashion. By the Treaty of Paris the Austrian Netherlands were arbitrarily united with Holland to form the kingdom of the Netherlands under the Prince of Orange as King William I. The reasons for this piece of political jugglery were not without plausibility. Historic ties connected the two countries. There were also ties of blood and tongue, and the necessary commercial bond was supplied by the opening which the great Dutch colonial market offered to Belgian trade. No political patchwork could have seemed more pretty.

The ultimate separation of the two states was foreshadowed from the outset. Nowhere in



*From the painting]*

## AN INCIDENT IN THE REVOLUTION OF 1830 AT BRUSSELS.

*[By G. Wappers.*

Belgium had long chafed under Dutch government, and in 1830 a movement for independence took place. The lowest classes took to rioting, and the tricolour of Brabant was raised on the city hall, whilst the royal arms were destroyed. The king refused to grant reforms until the revolt was suppressed, but the serious opposition offered to the troops of Prince Frederick at Brussels achieved the object of the revolution.

Europe had the ancient spirit of unbending Catholicism retained a firmer hold than in Belgium. Nowhere in Europe had Protestantism assumed a more rabid, uncompromising character than in Holland. The Dutch, remembering the work and hopes of William the Silent, looked on the southerners as renegades.

The Belgians thought of the miseries they had suffered at Dutch hands throughout the previous century. There were grievances, too, of a more practical kind. The constitution was so framed that the Dutch could make up in influence their obvious inferiority in point of population. The Dutch took care that their countrymen should occupy all, or nearly all, the posts of importance in the government and the public services. Dutch was proclaimed the official language, and a knowledge of Dutch was essential to preferment of any kind. In the circumstances it was not surprising that these measures should arouse a



*Engraved from the painting*

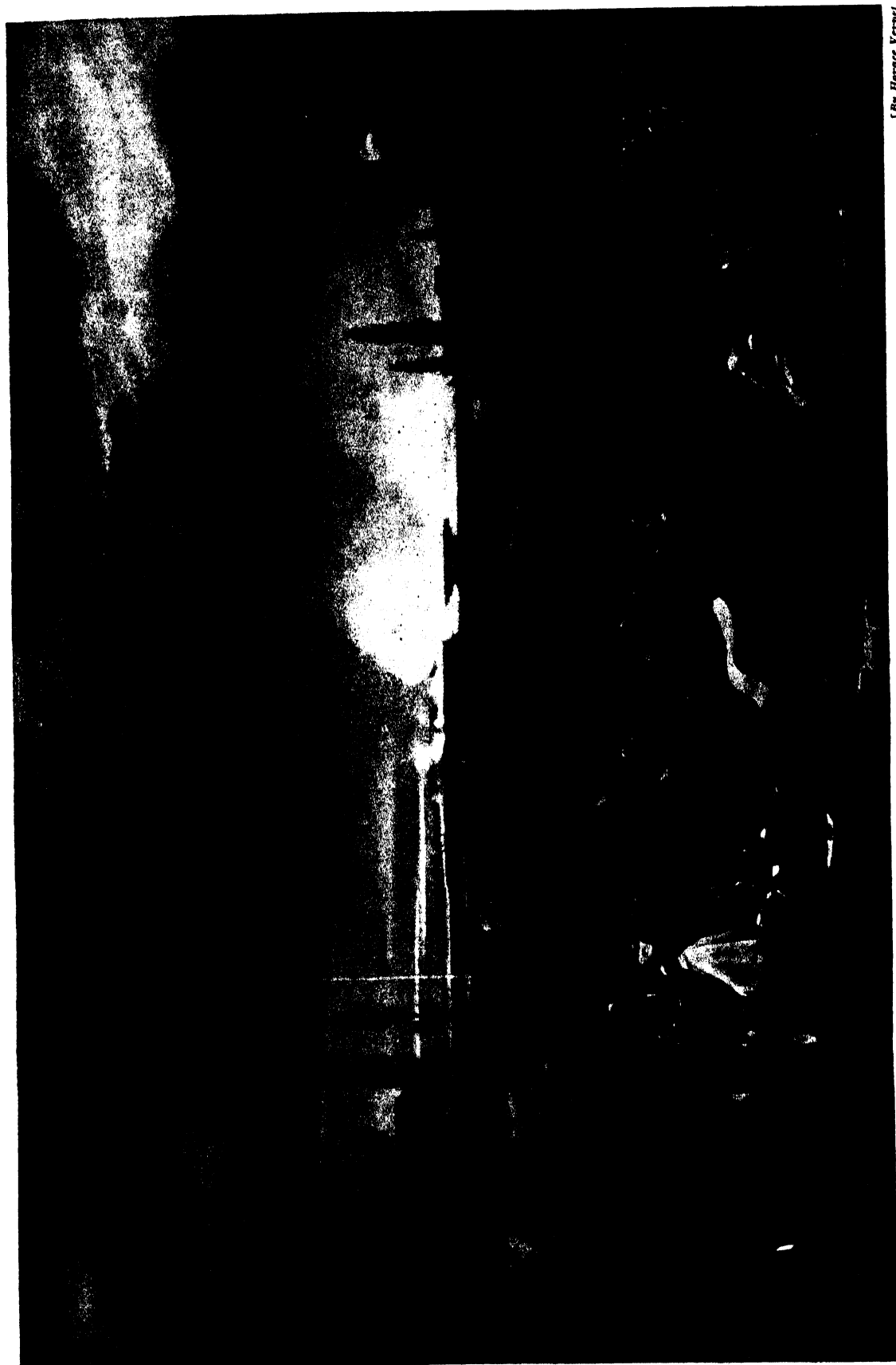
[By Court.]

#### THE MARRIAGE OF THE KING OF BELGIUM AND PRINCESS LOUISE OF ORLEANS.

Following his election as king in 1831, Duke Leopold of Saxe-Coburg married as his second wife the daughter of King Louis Philippe of France. The marriage was celebrated on August 8th, 1832, at the palace of Compiègne. The three children of the marriage were the late King Leopold, Philip, Count of Flanders, father of the present king, and Princess Marie Charlotte, who married the ill-fated Emperor Maximilian of Mexico.

feeling of bitterness which mere commercial prosperity could not allay. The feeling was naturally most intense among the French-speaking Walloons who had obvious sympathies with French political ideals and institutions, and had always disliked the Dutch and all their ways. The Flemings were only slightly less hostile to Dutch rule, and the two parties began to draw together with a view to common action. The procedure adopted was an agitation for a separate administration. At first this agitation was perfectly constitutional, but the July Revolution of 1830 in Paris immediately changed its complexion.

Just, as in 1789 the outbreak of the French Revolution precipitated the Brabançon Revolt, so in 1830 events in Belgium sympathetically followed events in France. The mob gave the lead, and the older and wiser heads found themselves committed to the cause of complete separation before they had realized whither circumstances were carrying them. The Dutch government hesitated



From the painting

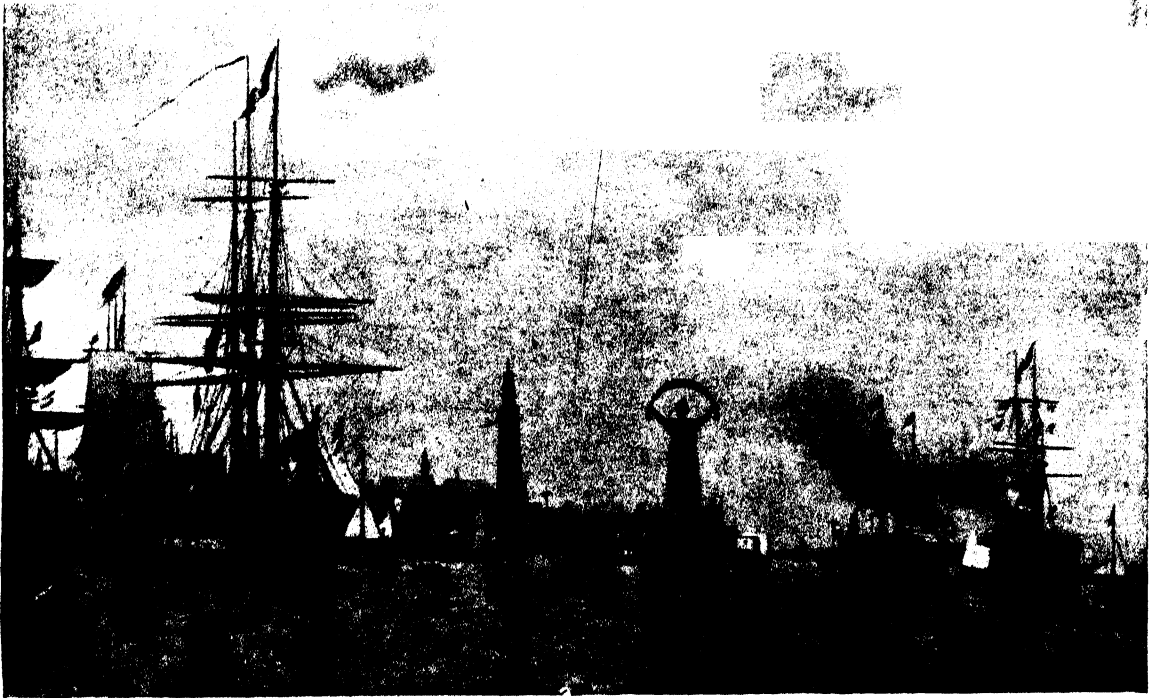
#### THE ATTACK ON ANTWERP, DECEMBER 22nd, 1832

[By Horace Vernet.]

Belgium's declaration of independence was followed by a Dutch invasion, and England and France thereupon decided to send an expedition against the Dutch. At the siege of Antwerp the walls of the citadel, which was built by Alva in 1567, proved so solid that it took three weeks to destroy any part of them. But the city finally capitulated on the 24th of December, 1832. General Gérard capitulated the plan of attack to the Dukes of Orleans and Nemours

as to what course they should adopt, and meanwhile the revolt became a truly national movement. The constitutional leaders of the patriotic party were still in doubt as to whether they should repudiate the Dutch connection when their hands were forced by a collision between Dutch troops and the revolutionaries, who had barricaded themselves into the poorer part of Brussels. The withdrawal of the Dutch was blazed abroad as a popular triumph, and thenceforward there was no looking back. Large bands of insurgents cleared Belgium of Dutch troops, until the citadel of Antwerp was all that remained to them. Meanwhile a provisional government had been formed, and Belgium declared to be an independent state.

King William I. was wise enough to see that the military subjection of Belgium, with a population half as large again as that of Holland, was a task of great difficulty, and accordingly he submitted all outstanding questions to the arbitrament of Europe. A congress of the five great Powers met



*From the painting]*

*[By Paul Jean Clays.*

#### THE FESTIVAL OF THE FREEDOM OF THE SCHELDT AT ANTWERP, 1863.

At the conclusion of the war waged during the Spanish occupation of the Netherlands, the Dutch followed up their blockade of the Scheldt by levying a permanent toll of one and a half florins per ton on Antwerp's shipping. This proved a great handicap to the business of the port, but in 1863 a conference met at Brussels and arranged the purchase of the right to levy the toll.

in London, and the new state was officially recognized. The subjects of this new state now proceeded to the election of a king, and the promulgation of a constitution which flattered its English contemporary by imitating it. As regards the choice of a Sovereign, it has been wisely said that the first political act of the new Belgians, at last their own masters, was the very negation of their nationhood. This act was the offer of the crown to a son of King Louis Philippe of France. The honour was declined, however, and finally the choice fell on Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, who ascended the throne as Leopold I.

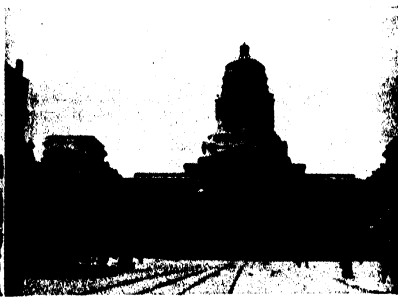
The Dutch immediately took to arms and invaded the country, inflicting a severe defeat on Leopold and the undisciplined array which for the first time represented Belgium militant. The Belgian cause seemed as good as lost, but fortunately the conference in London had finished its work, and was resolved that that work should not be undone. Its conclusions were embodied in a treaty signed in November, 1831, which guaranteed the independence of the new state, but made several territorial changes mainly at its expense.



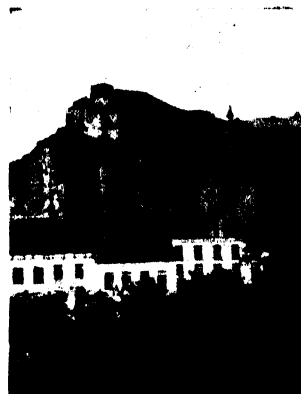
The main entrance of the Station du Nord at Brussels.



A street in the quaint and once prosperous old Bruges.



The Palace of Justice at Brussels, completed in 1883.



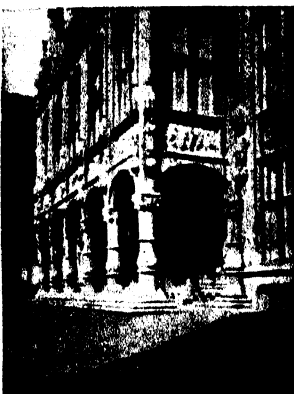
The Fortress of Dinant. Three hundred feet above the town.



St. Gudule at Brussels, famous for its painted windows.



The beautiful late Gothic Hôtel de Ville at Louvain.



Liège Law Courts, once the Palace of the Cardinals



St. Martin at Ypres, a thirteenth-century cathedral.



A street in Ghent, showing the Cathedral of St. Bavon.



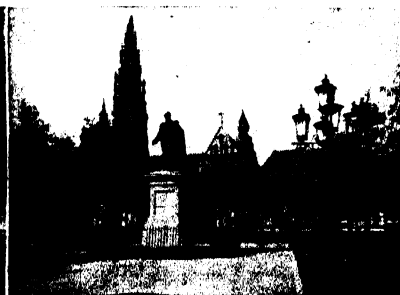
The Maison du Roi, Brussels. Built 1514, rebuilt 1877.



The Gothic Hôtel de Ville at Bruges, begun about 1376



One of the canals which intersect the town of Bruges.



Notre Dame Cathedral at Antwerp, and Rubens' statue.



Part of the Citadel of Namur, which was built in 1794.





Photo by]

[Underwood &amp; Underwood.

Since 1863 Antwerp has advanced to a position of first-rate importance amongst Continental ports. Its past has been terribly checkered owing to wars, but it now has eight principal basins or docks, and granite quays,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  miles in length, well equipped for the port's shipping.

she has been fortunate in her rulers. When King Leopold died in 1865 he had established the monarchy in the hearts of his subjects, and even French example had quite failed to turn the Belgians to any other form of government.

The year 1870 was critical in Belgian history owing to the outbreak of the Franco-German War. Belgium was a buffer state between the two combatants, and made preparation to defend her neutrality against aggression from either side. Fortunately she was not called upon to do more than demonstrate, for England secured from both belligerents a promise to observe the neutrality they had guaranteed, and the promise was loyally kept.

Otherwise the long reign of Leopold II. was occupied with the usual party controversies of the Liberals and Catholics and colonial expansion in the Congo. The period was one of great material prosperity, and one in which the new nation has given great names in art and letters to the world.

King Leopold II. died in December, 1909, and was succeeded by his nephew, Albert I., whose ability and courage in many difficult circumstances have won for him the admiration and affection of all his subjects.

At no time were these qualities more severely tested than during the international crisis of 1914, when Germany announced that the treaties guaranteeing Belgian neutrality were no longer binding on her and accordingly invaded the country.

King William I. refused to recognize the treaty until his last garrison in Antwerp had capitulated to a French army, and the matters in dispute between Holland and Belgium were not finally settled until 1839.

From that date to the present day the history of Belgium is primarily a recital of domestic politics. Belgium was in the vanguard of the great democratic movement of the nineteenth century. Her government is essentially popular, her ideas and institutions essentially republican. Yet



Photo per]

[Stanley's Press Agency.

King Albert of Belgium, who is the son of Philip, late Count of Flanders, was born on April 8th, 1875. In 1900 he married the Duchess Elizabeth of Bavaria, by whom he has two sons and a daughter. He succeeded his uncle Leopold II. in 1909. His gallantry during the present war has aroused intense admiration amongst all

# DATES OF DUTCH HISTORY

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
From the period of the Roman occupation to the Treaty of Verdun.	B.C.	
	12-9	Unsuccessful attempts made by Drusus, brother of Tiberius, to subdue the Frisians.
	A.D.	
	13	Submission of the Batavians to Roman rule under the governorship of Drusus, who treats them as allies.
	47	Submission of the Frisians to Cn. Domitius Corbulo.
	70	Frisians and Batavians, under the leadership of Claudius Civilis, unite in an attempt to throw off the Roman yoke.
	380	Beginnings of Teutonic invasions.
	450	The Franks seize the regions bordering the mouths of the Rhine.
	630	The first Christian church is built at Utrecht by Dagobert I., but destroyed by heathen Frisians.
	689	The Frisian Radbod is defeated at Borstadt by Pippin of Heristal, who compels him to cede West Frisia from the Scheldt to the Zuider Zee.
	695	Willibrord is consecrated Archbishop of the Frisians at Rome and his see is fixed at Utrecht.
	754	Martyrdom of Winfred, otherwise St. Boniface, who is killed by Frisians at Dokkum.
	785	Charlemagne subjugates the Frisians and builds a palace at Nimeguen on the Waal.
	843	By the Treaty of Verdun, Frisia becomes part of Lotharingia, or Lorraine.
From the division of Frisia to the reign of Philip the Fair.	870	Frisia divided between the kingdoms of the East Franks (Austrasia) and the West Franks.
	911	Frisia comes under the dominion of Charles the Simple, King of the West Franks. East Frisia subsequently gains its independence and maintains it for a considerable time.
	1015	Dirk III., first count of Holland, builds a fortified city at Dordrecht.
	1018	Dirk III. defeats Duke Godfrey of Lorraine.
	1061	Death of Floris I. of Holland, and succession of his infant son, with Gertrude of Saxony as guardian.
	1066	Gerard II. of Gelderland marries Irmengardis, daughter and heiress of Otto, Count of Zutphen, and their son Henry I. inherits both countships.
	1121	Death of Floris II. of Holland, and succession of the infant Dirk VI., under the regency of his mother, Petronella.
	1125	Peace is restored between the counts of Holland and the German emperors on the election of Lothair to the German throne.
	1203	Death of Dirk VII. of Holland, who is succeeded by his daughter Ada. Her father's brother William gains control of affairs.
	1218	William sets out for the Holy Land with the Crusaders. Siege and capture of Damietta, in which Hollanders and Frisians under William distinguish themselves.
	1229	Succession of Otto II., Count of Gelderland, who fortifies several towns and gives them privileges to encourage trade.
	1235	Floris IV. of Holland is killed by the Count de Clermont. Succession of William II. under the regency of Floris's brother, Otto III., Bishop of Utrecht.
	1248	Coronation of William II., Count of Holland, as King of Germany.
	1256	William is killed in battle with the Frisians. The infant Floris V. succeeds under the regency of his uncle.
	1288	Defeat of Reinald I. at the Battle of Woeringen, and seizure of Limburg by John I. of Brabant.
	1299	Death of the last count of Holland. The inheritance passes to the count of Hainault, John of Avesnes.
	1339	Succession of Reinald III., who quarrels with his brother.
	1371	Reinald dies. A struggle of rivals begins.
	1423	Succession of Arnold as Duke of Gelderland. Late in his reign his wife, Catherine of Cleves, and their son Adolf raise a conspiracy against him.
	1465	Arnold is taken prisoner and interned in the Castle of Buren.
	1471	Charles the Bold of Burgundy intervenes on behalf of Arnold. Adolf is forced to release his father, who sells the reversion of the duchy to the Duke of Burgundy.
From the death of Philip the Fair to the Act of Abjuration.	1477	Charles the Bold is defeated and slain at the Battle of Nancy. He is succeeded by his daughter Mary, who marries Maximilian, son of the Emperor.
	1494	Philip the Fair assumes the government of the Netherlands.
	1506	Philip dies and is succeeded by his son Charles, later the Emperor Charles V.
	1519	Election to the Empire of Charles V.
	1535	Abdication of Charles V. and succession of Philip II.
	1539	Philip leaves for Spain, and Margaret of Parma is appointed regent.
	1562	Conspiracy to drive Cardinal Granvelle from power.
	1566	The lesser nobles form a league called "The Compromise."
	1567	Ruthless persecutions of heretics. Alva sent to subdue the Netherlands. Dispersal of the confederates and retirement of William of Orange to Germany. Egmont and Hoorn are arrested, and the "Council of Troubles" is set up.
	1572	Briel captured by the Sea Beggars. Assembly of the States-General at Dordrecht.
	1573	Abandonment of the siege of Haarlem, which had cost the Spanish 12,000 lives. Recall of Alva and appointment of Requesens.
	1574	Surrender of Middelburg to patriots after a siege of two years. Siege of Leyden by the Spanish. Foundation of a university at Leyden to commemorate the relief of the city.
	1576	Appointment of Don John of Austria on the death of Requesens.
	1578	Alliance of the States with England. Death of Don John of Austria, who is succeeded by Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma.
From the assassination of William of Orange to the Treaty of Münster.	1579	By the Union of Utrecht John of Nassau creates a confederation of the northern provinces.
	1580	The sovereignty is offered to William of Orange by the States of Holland. A reward is offered by Philip for the assassination of Orange. The Act of Abjuration and Declaration of Independence.
	1581	William of Orange accepts the countship of Holland and Zeeland.
	1582	The Duke of Anjou's inauguration at Antwerp as Duke of Brabant, and soon afterwards as Duke of Gelderland, Count of Flanders and Lord of Friesland. Attempt on the life of William of Orange, by which he is seriously wounded.
	1583	Failure of the attempt of the Duke of Anjou to capture Antwerp in his own interest.
	1584	Assassination of William of Orange.
	1585	Elizabeth declines the sovereignty of Holland, but sends troops under Leicester to the Netherlands.
	1586	Defeat of the Spaniards at Zutphen, where Sir Philip Sidney is killed.
	1591	Capture of Zutphen, Nimeguen and Breda by Prince Maurice.
	1592	Death of the Duke of Parma.
	1594	Surrender of the Spanish stronghold at Groningen. The Duke of Parma is succeeded by the Archduke Ernest.
	1598	The Netherlands, with Burgundy, are transferred to Philip's daughter Isabella and her husband, the Archduke Albert. Death of Philip II.
	1600	Prince Maurice defeats the Archduke Albert in a desperate battle before Nieuport.
	1602	Foundation of the Dutch East India Company.
	1604	Capture of Sluys by Prince Maurice.
	1605	Defeat of a Spanish fleet off Dover. Towns in the Province of Overijssel are captured by Spinola, and Prince Maurice is defeated at Ruhrort.
	1606	The Spanish defeat a Dutch fleet off Cape St. Vincent.
	1607	Destruction of the Spanish fleet by the Dutch off Gibraltar. Peace proposals made by Spain.
	1608	Congress at the Hague.
	1609	Twelve years' truce between Holland and Spain.
	1610	Death of Arminius, the religious reformer. Religious dissensions result in the formation of parties known as Remonstrants and Counter-Remonstrants.

# DATES OF DUTCH HISTORY—*continued*

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
	1618	Arrest of Grotius and Barneveldt, and overthrow of various town councils. Synod of Dort.
	1619	Barneveldt is sentenced to death, and Grotius to imprisonment for life.
	1621	Escape of Grotius and renewal of war with Spain.
	1625	Death of Prince Maurice and succession of his brother, Prince Frederick Henry. Capture of Breda by the Spanish.
	1629	Capture of Bois-le-Duc by Frederick Henry.
	1632	Siege of Maastricht and repulse of Pappenheim by Frederick Henry at Meerssen. Proposal for peace made by Spain.
	1634	Foundation of Dutch colony at Curaçao. Alliance with France.
	1639	Spaniards defeated by Van Tromp in the Downs.
	1647	Death of Prince Frederick, who is succeeded by his son William II.
	1648	Treaty of Münster. Spain acknowledges the absolute independence of the United Provinces and makes peace.
	1650	Death of William II., and succession of his son, William III.
From the "Great Assembly" to the Treaty of Ryswick.	1651	The "Great Assembly." The Navigation Act passed by England, which seizes Dutch vessels.
	1652	Inconclusive naval encounters between the English under Blake, and the Dutch under Van Tromp and De Ruyter.
	1653	Alliance with Denmark. Appointment of John de Witt as Grand Pensionary.
	1657	War between Sweden and Denmark. Dutch defeat a Swedish fleet.
	1664	Further naval combats between Dutch and English in the West Indies. Seizure of the Dutch colony of New Netherland, with its capital, New Amsterdam (New York).
	1665	Dutch fleet defeated off Lowestoft. Invasion of the United Provinces by Bishop Galen of Münster.
	1666	Great battle off the North Foreland, in which the English, under Monk and Prince Rupert, are defeated by the Dutch under De Ruyter and Van Tromp.
	1667	Capture of Sheerness by De Ruyter, who burns English warships at Chatham. Peace with England. The Perpetual Edict.
	1672	War declared by England and France on Holland, and Holland is invaded by the French army. Defeat of the English fleet at Southwold Bay by De Ruyter. Revocation of the Perpetual Edict. Murder of the brothers de Witt. The United Provinces are joined by the Elector of Brandenburg. Naval combats, in which the Dutch under Van Tromp and De Ruyter are victorious over the French and English.
	1674	Peace between England and Holland.
	1676	Indecisive naval battles with the French off Stromboli and Messina; in the latter De Ruyter is mortally wounded.
	1677	Defeat of the Prince of Orange at St. Omer and Cassel, and repulse at the siege of Charleroi. Marriage of Orange with Mary, daughter of James, Duke of York.
	1678	Peace treaty with France is signed at Nimeguen.
	1686	The League of Augsburg, composed of the Emperor, Spain, Sweden, and the United Provinces, with Orange as leader of the resistance to France.
	1688	William of Orange lands in England.
From the declaration of war with France to the abdication of Louis Bonaparte.	1692	Defeat of the French fleet by the Dutch and English at La Hogue. Defeat of William at Steenkirk.
	1693	Defeat of the Dutch at Cape St. Vincent. Defeat of William at Nerwinden.
	1697	By the Treaty of Ryswick all towns in the United Provinces seized by France since the Treaty of Nimeguen were to be given up.
	1702	War declared against France. The allied forces under Marlborough gain great victories.
	1704	Gibraltar captured by the Dutch and English.
	1712	England drops out of the alliance. Le Quesnoy is captured by the Dutch.
	1744	Quadruple alliance, composed of Great Britain, Austria, Saxony and Holland.
	1745	The Dutch take part in the War of the Austrian Succession, and suffer heavy losses at the Battle of Fontenoy.
	1747	Invasion of the States by the French. William of Orange-Nassau becomes stadholder as William IV. Bergen-op-Zoom besieged and captured by the French. The position of stadholder is declared hereditary.
	1751	Death of William IV., and succession of William V. under the regency of Anne of England.
	1766	Accession of William V.
	1780	Holland joins the agreement between the continental states known as the "Armed Neutrality."
From the revolt against the French to the Treaty with Belgium.	1787	Joseph II. of Belgium invades Holland.
	1793	Capture of Breda by the French.
	1794	Capture of Sluys, Maastricht and Bois-le-Duc by the French under Pichegru.
	1795	Patriots welcome the French, and the stadholder abandons Holland. A new government, known as the Batavian Republic, is established.
	1797	The Dutch fleet under De Winter is defeated by the English off Camperdown.
	1799	Surrender of the Dutch fleet in the Texel.
	1805	Schimmelpenninck is made Grand Pensionary, whilst the Batavian Republic receives a new constitution.
	1806	Holland becomes a kingdom under Napoleon's brother Louis.
	1810	Abdication of Louis, and annexation of Holland by Napoleon.
	1813	Success of revolt against the French. Landing of the Prince of Orange, who is proclaimed sovereign as William I.
	1814	Holland is annexed to Belgium by the Treaty of Paris.
	1815	Defeat of the English and Dutch by Ney at Quatre-Bras. William of Orange commands the Dutch at Waterloo. Belgium becomes restless under Dutch government.
From the abdication of William I. to the birth of the heir to the throne.	1830	To quell the revolt, Dutch troops move on Brussels, but they are compelled to retreat before strong opposition. Severance of the Dutch kingdom by the London conference. Dutch troops hold Antwerp citadel.
	1831	Defeat of the Belgians by the Dutch at Louvain. An armistice follows the arrival of a French army. Refusal of Holland to recognize Belgian independence.
	1832	England and France take joint action against Holland. The French army besieges Antwerp.
	1833	A convention is signed with Belgium.
	1839	Treaty signed with Belgium.
	1840	Abdication of William I. in favour of his son William II.
	1848	A new constitution is granted.
	1849	Death of William II., and succession of his son William III.
	1867	Dispute between Holland and Germany concerning Luxembourg.
	1871	Holland transfers certain possessions in Dutch Guinea to England.
	1873-9	War in Sumatra, which is brought to a successful conclusion.
	1887	Extension of the franchise granted.
	1890	Death of William III., and succession of his daughter Wilhelmina under a regency.
	1898	Passing of a bill for conscription. Queen Wilhelmina assumes the government.
	1901	Marriage of Queen Wilhelmina with Duke Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.
	1903	Bill passed by the States-General declaring railway strikes illegal.
	1905	End of the Kuyper government, and formation of a new ministry by Demeester.
	1909	Birth of Princess Juliana, the heir to the throne.

## CHAPTER XVII

*THE DUTCH. By F. APPLEBY HOLT, B.A., LL.B.*

THE territory of modern Holland occupies the north-western corner of the great central European plain where the land seems to slide into the waters of the North Sea. Its geographical position, as it were on the brink of engulfment, has been a powerful, perhaps a decisive, influence in moulding the character and fortunes of the dwellers on its soil. To arrive at a true comprehension of Dutch history it is necessary to grasp the cardinal fact that the inhabitants of this region have first and foremost been faced with the problem of protecting its integrity against the onslaught of Nature. The twentieth-century Dutchman, no less than his far-away first-century ancestor, is still occupied in keeping out the sea. Science has simplified the problem for him. He cannot merely control the inundations, but Caesar had good reason to remember the courage of the Gallic savages who dwelt in the southern half of this low-lying region. He speaks in terms of unstinted praise of the "Belgae," whom he called the bravest of the Gauls; but his researches do not seem to have extended beyond the Rhine, and it was left for Tacitus to give us a description of the ancestors of the modern Dutchman. From the testimony of these two we gather that the Rhine formed the boundary between the Celtic tribes on the south and Teutonic tribes on the north; that the island of Batavia between the two arms of the

even adapt them to his own purposes, and can proudly point to many an occasion when the waters have saved him from his foes. But to that early ancestor the sea was the bad master, not the good friend. With fearful suddenness and without a moment's notice it swept up from the illimitable west, submerged the mud mound on which his wretched hovel stood, and swept himself and his neighbours into ruin. He realized by bitter experience that the place was indeed a hollow, low-lying, nether land.

Our first knowledge of this dismal waste comes from the Romans. Julius



*Painted specially for this work*

[By H. M. Burton.]

TEUTONS AND CELTS UNITE IN ENDEAVOURS TO DRIVE THE ROMANS FROM GAUL.

In A.D. 70 a great Batavian, Claudius Civilis, took advantage of disorder at Rome to lead the Celtic and Teutonic tribesmen, amongst whom were the Frisians, in a struggle for independence. Roman garrisons near the Rhine were driven from their positions, and at Castra Vetera (Xantero) two legions were surrounded. But dissensions arose between the Celts and Teutons, and Civilis, being defeated, made peace on the old conditions.

Caesar had good reason to remember the courage of the Gallic savages who dwelt in the southern half of this low-lying region. He speaks in terms of unstinted praise of the "Belgae," whom he called the bravest of the Gauls; but his researches do not seem to have extended beyond the Rhine, and it was left for Tacitus to give us a description of the ancestors of the modern Dutchman. From the testimony of these two we gather that the Rhine formed the boundary between the Celtic tribes on the south and Teutonic tribes on the north; that the island of Batavia between the two arms of the







mighty river was inhabited also by a Teutonic people, and that these same Batavians were admitted to the friendship of Rome as "socii," or allies. Further north, again, the land between the Rhine and the Ems and the islands off the coasts were occupied by Frisian tribes, always known as the "free Frisians," a conglomeration of communities of pure German origin.

The friendship of the Batavians seems to have been of the greatest value to the Romans. The islanders furnished the great Empire with some of its best light cavalry, and enrolled themselves freely in the Praetorian Guard, to whom so many of the Emperors owed their elevation and their fall. The association, however, had its dangers. The sturdy Teutons, while duly impressed with the magnificence of the Imperial capital, soon perceived its inherent weaknesses, its perpetual dissensions, intrigues, plots and counterplots, bursting at intervals into those anarchic conflagrations which were but the prelude to total destruction. Above all, they soon learned the dependence of the imperial machine upon themselves. Accordingly we hear of a great revolt of the Netherland tribes inspired and directed by a Batavian noble, who had served a long apprenticeship with the Roman armies, had been disgraced on a false charge, and had returned to his native land burning for revenge. Tacitus has preserved for us both the name and the exploits of this Batavian hero, Civilis. The great confederation he organized met with no small



Though the kingdom of Holland is small in extent, it has valuable colonial possessions, which were first colonized by the Dutch East and West India Companies in the early part of the seventeenth century.

measure of success. The invincible Roman legionaries received many a rude lesson, and one of the greatest of the Emperors had himself taken the field when the confederation suddenly broke up. The Gallic and Teutonic elements were too mutually distrustful, too essentially antagonistic, to survive the first threat of failure. Civilis and his Germans were left to the unequal contest, and only the skill and intrepidity of the Batavian hero secured what seems to have been an honourable peace. Large-hearted, broad-minded Tacitus dwells lovingly on this incident, lavishing on it the full wealth of his descriptive powers. But to him it was still only an incident. To us it is far more—a portent, a prophecy. In that break-up of Civilis's confederation we see foreshadowed the death of William the Silent's fondest hopes, the birth of the kingdoms of modern Holland and Belgium. The fundamental antagonism of Gaul and Teuton was a barrier which neither time nor community of interest have been able to remove. The Teutonic people waited sixteen centuries for its inevitable independence. The Gallic people waited eighteen before it proclaimed its first King of the Belgians. Yet though throughout this period a curious and wayward fate intertwined the destinies of these two races, they remained essentially distinct and separate. The realization of this fact is vital to a true comprehension of Dutch history, even when at times to speak of Dutch history seems a historical absurdity. Geographically speaking, the Netherlands, Gallic and Teutonic, seemed fated to form a homogeneous part of some alien empire; but the





DESIDERIUS ERASMUS.

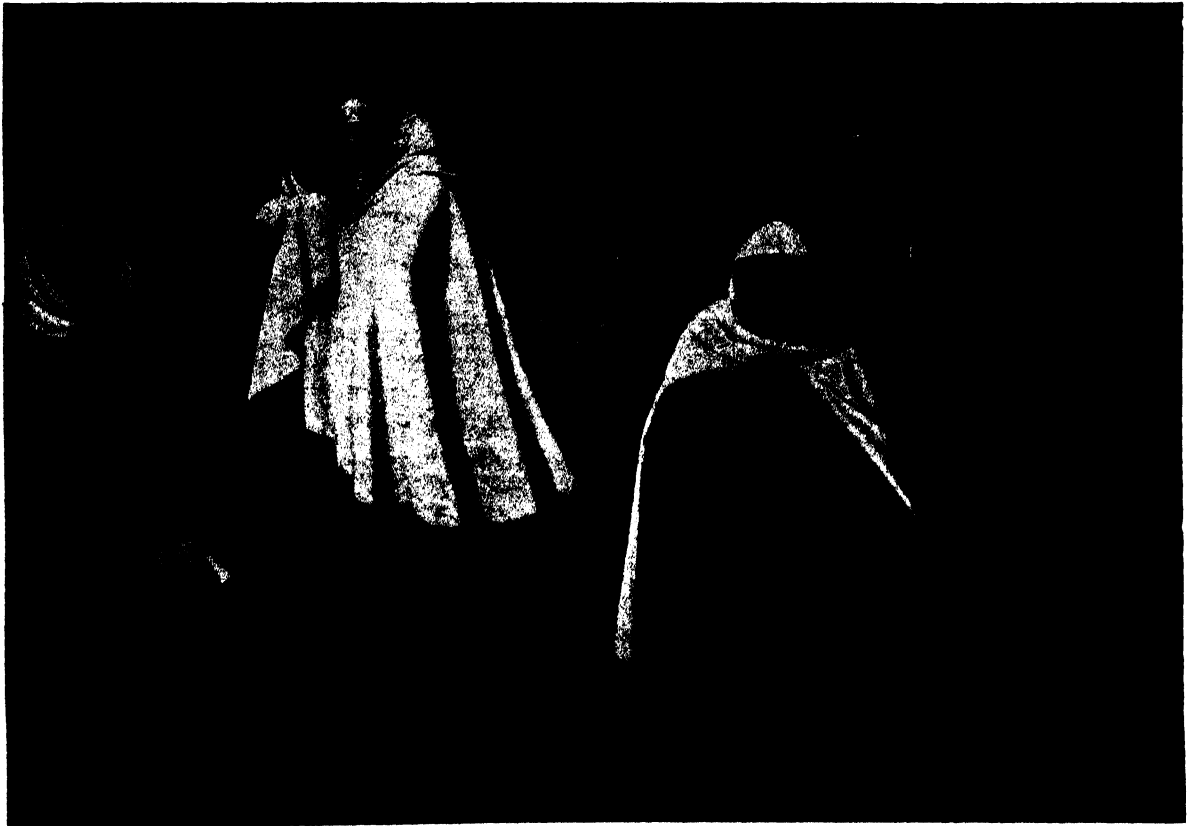
The great scholar Erasmus was born at Rotterdam in 1467. Though possessed of a great intellect he seems to have had neither the courage nor constructive genius necessary for the work of the Reformation in Holland, but his influence might have been profound. He fled to Switzerland to avoid the upheaval, and died at Basle in 1536.

overlordship by exchanging his royal for a ducal title, and the claims of Christianity had been recognized by the establishment of a great Christian church at Utrecht. The work thus begun was completed by Charlemagne, who finally subdued both the Frisians and the Saxons. Meanwhile the eloquence of Christian missionaries had reinforced the pointed argument of the Frankish sword, and the establishment and consolidation of the bishopric of Utrecht, with both temporal and spiritual authority, marked the final downfall of heathendom. Charlemagne displayed as much wisdom in pacifying, consolidating, and organizing his new dominions as he had shown vigour and valour in winning them. If he were acquainted with the writings of Tacitus he would know that his new subjects had centuries of strong democratic tradition behind them. This tradition had not wholly been effaced by the centralizing despotism of Rome. The great Frankish ruler endeavoured to shape their sense of communal interdependence to his own ends. The "free" Frisians were to remain free, to retain their own local customs and institutions in so far as these were consistent with that system of political and judicial administration which was the strength and weakness of the Frankish Empire. This system, the egg from which feudalism was later hatched, consisted of setting up royal officers—"counts"—with a hierarchy of officials below them who should be responsible for the good government of specified regions. The count's chief duty, especially in the Netherlands which bordered on the regions of barbarism, was to repel the foe without. He was accordingly endowed with wide military powers and supported by strong military force. So great was the extent of the Carolingian Empire that even Charlemagne himself was not altogether

homogeneity was only apparent, destined to ruthless destruction in the secession of the Belgian provinces from the United Netherlands in the Belgian War of Independence in 1830.

This, then, being the true significance of the failure of Civilis, with his departure the mists of obscurity, temporarily lifted by the two Roman historians, once more descend upon the scene. When they rise again the great Teutonic migrations have overwhelmed the Roman Empire. The Gallic Netherlands have passed from a Roman province to a Frankish province. Further north there are changes also, but changes traceable only to the fusion of Teutonic stocks. The Franks, or the free Frisians, have swallowed up the Batavians, and other German peoples, such as the Saxons, have established themselves firmly to the west of the Ems. The next few centuries are occupied by the struggles of the Frisians with the growing Frankish power. By the eighth century Frankish dominion stood for World-Empire and the Christian faith, the two principles most distasteful to the independent and heathen Frisian. But the Franks were not to be denied. By the seventh century the Frisian king had confessed Frankish

successful in supervising and controlling the actions of these powerful vassals. Under his degenerate successors the task became impossible. The Frankish officials turned themselves into local rulers, abjured the central authority except in name, collected the revenue on their own account, and exchanged their delegated authority for hereditary sovereignty. The land became dotted with a multitude of principalities which confessed a nominal allegiance to the Frankish, German, or Lorraine overlord, but in reality enjoyed the reality and all the profits of independence. Thus while the Netherlands passed in 843 A.D., by the Treaty of Verdun, to the middle kingdom of Lothair, in 879 to the East Franks, in 912 to the West Franks, in 924 back to the East Franks under the German Henry the Fowler, and though it ultimately appears as part of the Duchy of Lorraine, yet all these changes of suzerainty connote no change of effective rule, for the real rulers were the feudal potentates such as the Dukes of Brabant, the Counts of Flanders, Hainault, Holland, Gelderland, Limburg and Luxembourg, and the Bishops of Utrecht and Liège. Of these the Counts of Holland and the Bishops of Utrecht ruled the larger portion of what is now the modern kingdom of Holland and disputed the overlordship of Friesland. The county of Holland dates from 922, and the first count was Dirk, whose successors of the same name proved themselves vigorous warriors and able rulers. It was easier in those days to be a vigorous warrior than an able ruler, for the feudal system was a consecration of force and tolerable only as an alternative to anarchy. To the towns that grew up under the shelter of the lord's castle and the industries that established themselves in the towns protection and security were prime necessities. The ever-present terror was the rapacity of a marauding neighbour, and accordingly the merchant was only too willing to give service and tribute in exchange for his lord's protection. Men were willing to sell their souls to save their skins. With such illimitable opportunities for oppression and extortion, however, the counts of



THE SACK OF A MONASTERY.

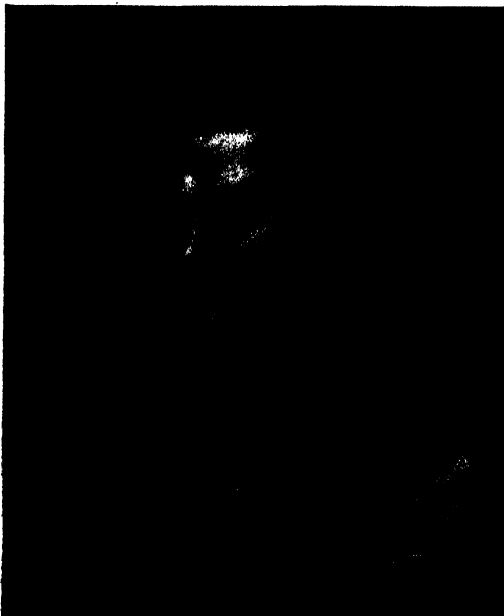
The cruel persecutions of the Netherlands by Spain, which had the sanction of the Pope, brought a terrible retribution upon the old Faith. Extremists broke into and sacked the churches and religious houses, and for their destruction of statues and all things ornate in the churches they were known as "Iconoclasts," or "Image-breakers."

Holland preserved a fair degree of order in their dominions, and commerce began to flourish, interrupted only by occasional raids of the Northmen, revolts of the Frisians, and wars with Flanders and the Bishops of Utrecht. In 1015 Dirk III. built the town of Dordrecht and made it his capital. His reputation became so great as to excite the jealousy of the Emperor, his nominal overlord, who organized a confederation against him. Holland seemed destined to destruction when, by what was deemed a miraculous intervention, the battle turned in Dirk's favour. Forty years later another attempt to overwhelm work which destroyed the



Charles V. (1500-1558), Emperor of Germany, was born at Ghent. By his father's marriage with Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, the kingdoms of Castile and Aragon were added to the Burgundian dominions. The Netherlands was an inheritance by the marriage of his grandfather, the Emperor Maximilian, with Mary of Burgundy.

the infant state likewise ended in disaster. A third was temporarily successful, and the Hollanders had the mortification of seeing the town of Delft founded by an alien Duke of Lorraine. The triumph, however, was short-lived, for by 1076 Dirk V. had recovered the family possessions. Thenceforward the integrity of the county was never seriously threatened. One count succeeded another, occupying his time with crusading, hunting, and petty wars with his neighbours. The records deal with all manner of picturesque but trivial political and social incidents; but here, as elsewhere, the silent revolution was at

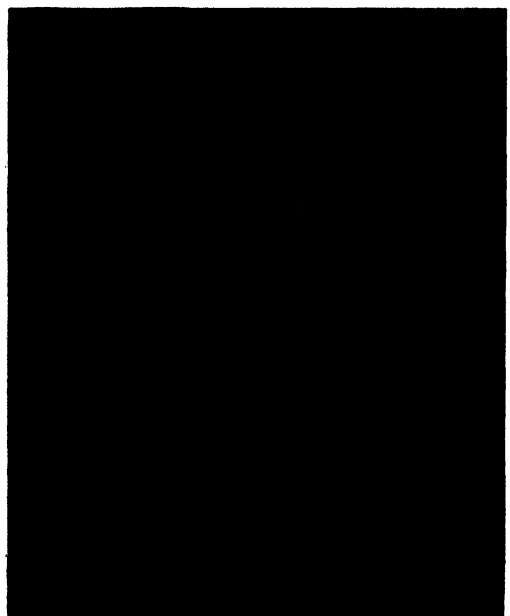


From the painting]

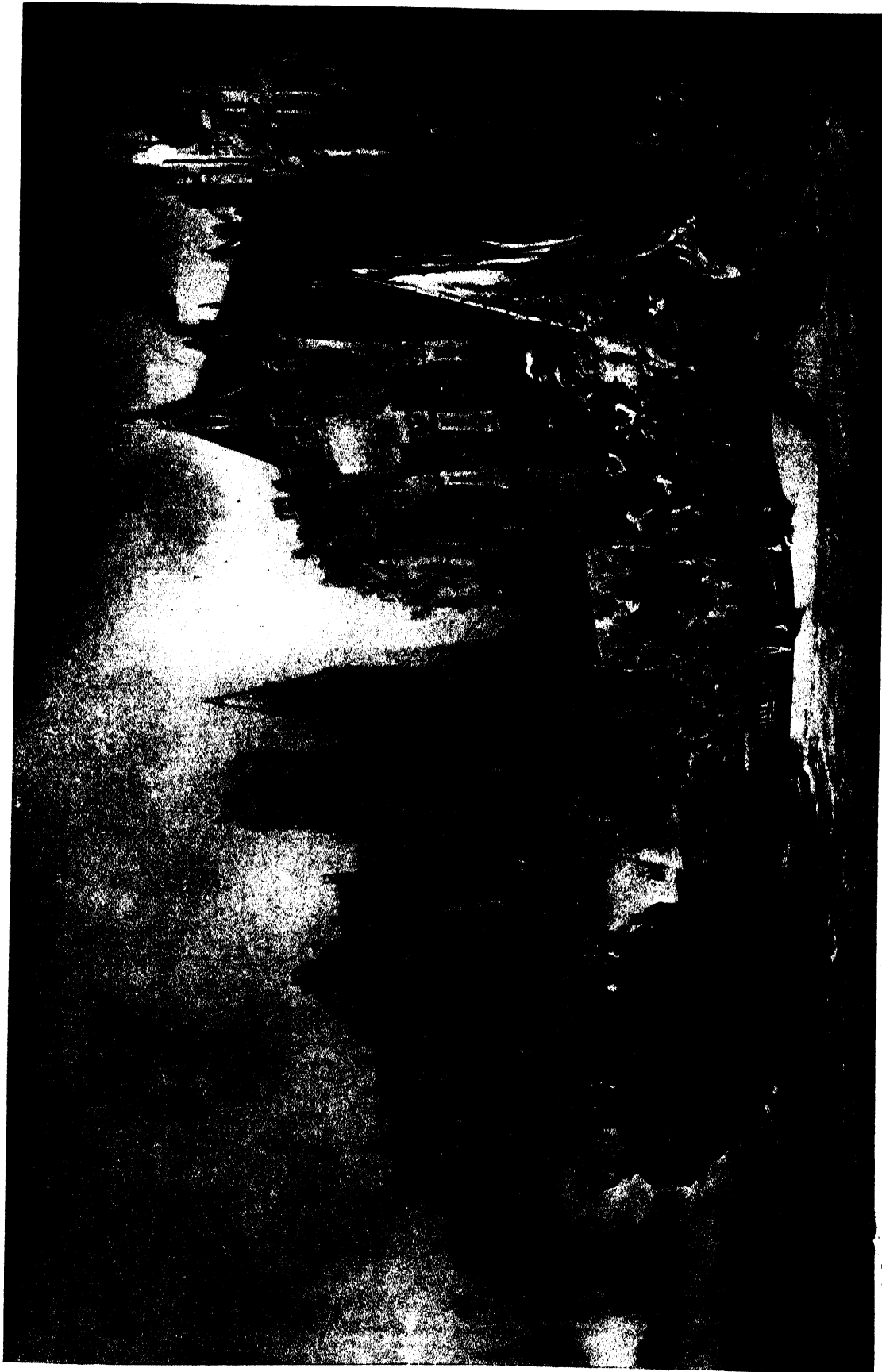
Philip II. (1527-1588), King of Spain. He was the only son of Charles V. and was born at Valladolid. His attempt to establish the Inquisition in the Netherlands was one cause of the successful revolt against Spanish rule.

We have seen how the townsmen, acquiring wealth as the result of trade expansion, leaned upon the feudal lord. As the centuries passed the process was reversed. The feudal lord came to lean upon the towns. He

always wanted money. The townsmen always



Fernando Alvarez de Toledo, Duke of Alba (1508-1582), was sent by Philip II. to suppress the revolt in the Netherlands. There he used his power with terrible effect, and on being recalled in 1573 he claimed to have sent eighteen thousand people to their death.

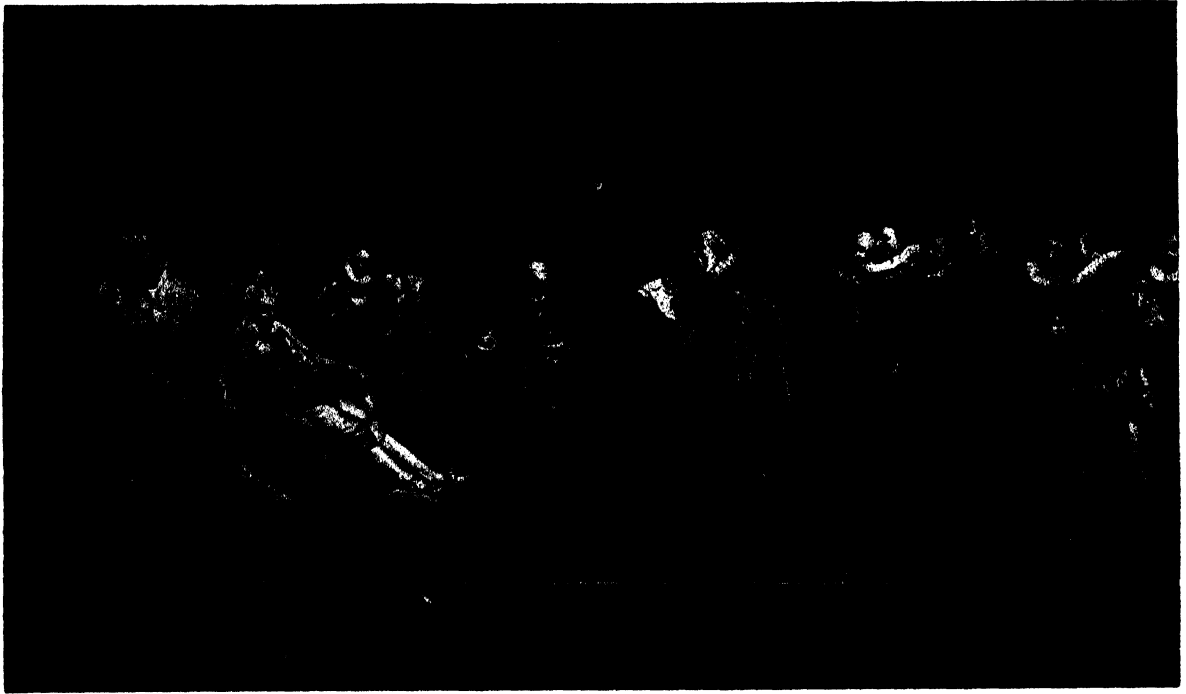


*From the painting*

#### VISIT OF THE DUKE OF ALVA TO ROTTERDAM.

The arrival of the Duke of Alva was greeted with trembling acquiescence by the people of the Netherlands. The greatest general of his time he was in no sense a mediator, but one who came to crush a people already in revolt against the Inquisition. His army, which numbered ten thousand men, was perfect in its equipment. The troops were distributed throughout the chief cities and so complete was the Spanish occupation that the burghers were even compelled to deliver up the keys of their cities to Alva.

*[By Eugene Iuby.]*



HENRY III. OF FRANCE AND THE DUTCH ENVOYS.

In spite of Anjou's treacherous conduct at Antwerp, the sovereignty of the United Provinces was offered in 1585 to his brother, Henry III. of France. Paul Buys, advocate of Holland, and Jan van Barneveldt, pensionary of Rotterdam, were charged with the negotiations, but Henry declined the offer owing to difficulties in his own country.

wanted security. Accordingly the practice arose of granting charters to the towns, conferring certain privileges, such as local self-government or the right to administer justice. The lord's need for money was accentuated by his desire to go crusading. Frequently he did not return, and if he did it was to find his authority impaired by his absence. He was willing to obtain fresh supplies by granting fresh privileges, and in a short time the town became virtually independent. Simultaneously the crusading movement which decimated the feudal potentates created the demand for commodities and warlike materials which brought prosperity to the towns themselves. Contact with the great marts of the East proved an effective stimulus to commerce in the West, and the towns were the first to benefit. Thus in the fourteenth century we find the Netherlands studded with great industrial and trading communities with an organized and highly complex civic life of their own. The towns of Holland never attained the size and importance of the great democratic communes of Flanders; but Dordrecht, Leyden, Haarlem and Rotterdam developed into great commercial emporia, without, however, exercising much influence on political events until a later period. The internal organization of these communities, as containing the seeds of the future Republic, cannot be passed over in silence. The townsmen were grouped according to their trades into guilds, each perhaps with a particular quarter of the town assigned to it. Each guild was bound to supply troops in case of need, and each member received a certain minimum of military training. Above the guilds came the senate, of one or more burgomasters, usually elected by the members, and over the senate the count's representative exercised supervision, more or less nominal, according to the town's charter. Such was the general scheme of civic organization, but details varied greatly in different towns and provinces. Some affected the democratic type, others the oligarchic, the latter perhaps preponderating.

At first these towns seem to have regarded themselves as isolated, self-dependent units, owing allegiance to the count. The citizen was primarily a member of a city, and his patriotism was limited to the area circumscribed by his native walls. He was slow to realize that outside the town lay the state with wider, higher claims upon his allegiance. It took two centuries of storm and stress and the fiery

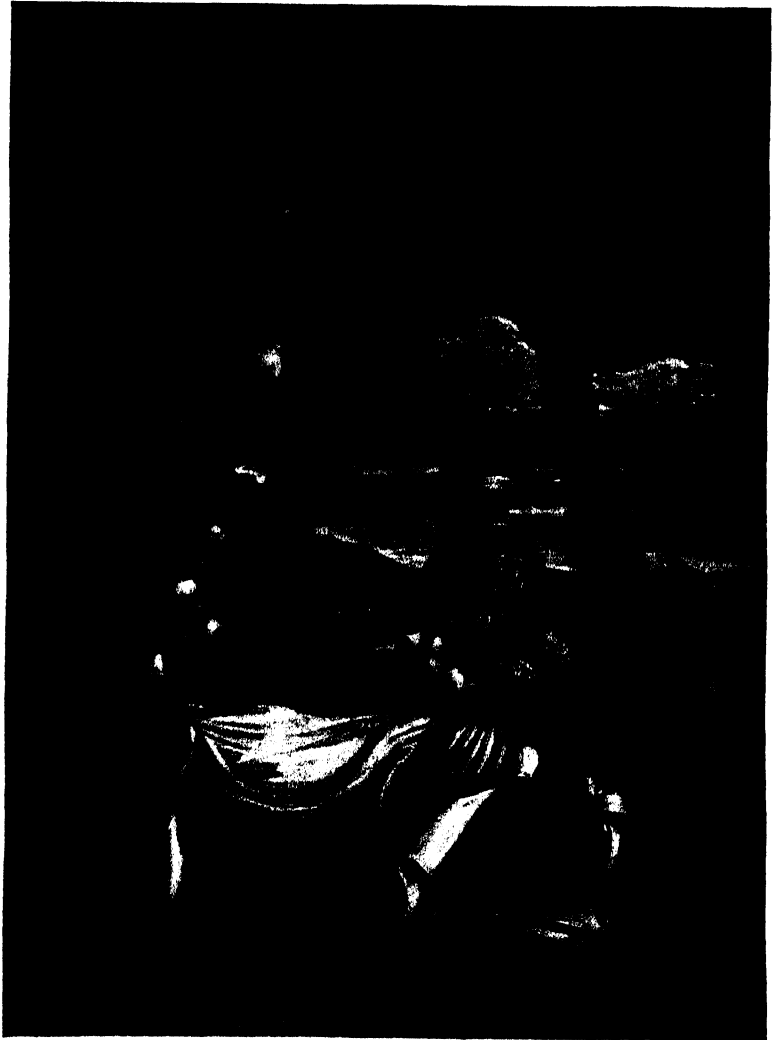
trial of the Spanish invasions to show the townsmen of Holland that the ideal of national unity was thwarted by their dissensions and jealousies. In the fourteenth century the ties between the towns were of the loosest description. They seldom acted in concert, and then only when at the command of the count the more important communities sent deputies to deliberate on matters of general interest. In the process of time these assemblies, known as the meetings of the "estates," became representative of all classes and an integral part of the constitution.

Outside the towns lay the great feudal estates of the nobles, each with his entourage of vassals, the lands administered by, and belonging to, ecclesiastical foundations, and those governed by bailiffs directly appointed by the count.

Such were the main features of the organization of society in the Netherlands during the feudal period. The "events" which captivated the attention of the chroniclers were, as we have seen, the petty wars between Holland, Friesland, Utrecht and Gelderland. Holland had also waged a long and bitter war with Flanders for possession of the islands of Zeeland. In this war the Hollanders became a seafaring people and organized a navy, a development pregnant with possibilities for the future.

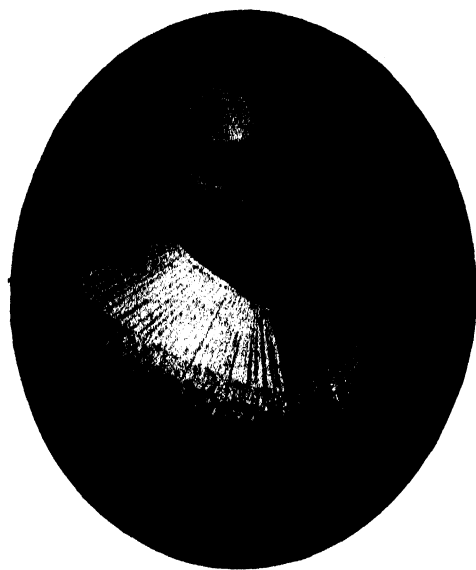
At the commencement of the fifteenth century the feudal states of the Netherlands passed under the sway of the great house of Burgundy. The long line of counts of Holland had come to an end, and the government of Holland, Zeeland, Hainault and Friesland was vested in the heiress Jacqueline of Hainault, when in 1428 Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, compelled her to surrender her possessions to him. Shortly afterwards he made one of his sons Bishop of Utrecht, and another son, Charles the Bold, completed his father's work by incorporating Gelderland in his dominions.

Thus for the first time since the days of the Carolingians the states of the Netherlands passed to a single ruler—a ruler, moreover, with clear ideas of unifying his dominions and establishing a strong, central, monarchical government. The ancient civic sentiments of the Netherland towns were, of course, the outstanding obstacle to the achievement of this ambition. But Philip the Bold was not a man to be thwarted. The nobles and clergy readily accepted his rule, and when Bruges and Ghent broke into open revolt he visited them with the severe punishment of curtailing their municipal privileges. The



THE DEATH OF SIR PHILIP SIDNEY.

Whilst taking part in an attack on the Spanish positions at Zutphen Sir Philip Sidney was shot in the thigh. Though mortally wounded he refused a cup of water, asking that it might be given to a dying soldier whose need, as he said, was greater than his own. He died on October 17th, 1586.



From the painting]

[By M. J. van Miervelt.

Hugo Grotius (1583-1645) was the most eminent jurist of his time, and his masterpiece on international law was a standard work. He was also distinguished as scholar, theologian and statesman. Though arrested with Barneveldt in 1618, he managed to escape from imprisonment.

position was precarious, but fortunately the other provinces, including Holland, showed more statesmanship, and sold their allegiance at their own price. Profiting by her embarrassment and realizing that a loose rein would replace the tight hand of her father and grandfather, they extracted from her the "Great Privilege," a new charter restoring and extending the local powers which had been enjoyed in pre-Burgundian days. Of these powers the most important were the provisions that the states might veto the imposition of taxes and that natives alone should be appointed to public offices. Supplementary charters to Holland, Zeeland and Brabant completed the bargain to the manifest advantage of the Netherlands.

With these concessions Mary purchased security against France, and by her marriage to Maximilian of Austria the Netherlands passed peacefully into the dominions of the House of Hapsburg. In 1482 Mary died and Maximilian became regent for their young son. A short period of anarchy followed, for the Netherlands recognized that they were threatened with a repetition of the Burgundian tyranny. For three years the issue hung in the balance, and at one time Maximilian found himself a prisoner in Bruges. The Hapsburg resources, however, restored his fortunes; the Dutch states deserted the Flemings, and with the surrender of Ghent the new absolutism was established. Maximilian promptly turned on the northern provinces, repudiated the "Great Privilege," and promised to observe those charters only which had been observed by Philip and Charles of Burgundy. Thus was peace restored, and when Maximilian became Emperor in 1494 his son Philip, "the Fair," succeeded, although only in his fifteenth year. Gelderland and

example was not lost on the townships of the north, which submitted to Burgundian rule without, however, abating one jot of their civic pretensions, and only awaiting a favourable moment to reassert their rights.

The period of Burgundian domination, though marked by the usual incidents of medieval tyranny and extortion, was a time of great material prosperity. Industries of all kinds were stimulated by the example of luxury and magnificence set by the Court, and the various states were brought into closer relationship by the establishment of a grand council and the convocation of a states-general to which deputies from all the provinces were summoned. Indeed, at one moment the Burgundian dream of a unified middle kingdom between France and the Empire seemed on the verge of realization; but in 1477 Duke Charles the Bold was defeated and killed by the Swiss at the Battle of Nancy. His possessions devolved on his daughter Mary, a girl of twenty, and the Burgundian Empire was threatened with immediate disruption.

Louis XI. of France at once laid claim to the southern provinces and made warlike demonstrations against the northern. Gelderland proclaimed its independence, and the bishopric of Utrecht threw off the Burgundian yoke. Mary's



Admiral Tromp (1597-1653) was the victor in over thirty naval battles, by which he established Dutch sea-power. His great opponents were the English under Blake, Monk and Deane; and he was killed in battle with Monk off the Dutch coast.



#### THE RESTORATION OF THE FAITH.

Though Philip II. affected to exterminate heresy in the Netherlands, the result of Alva's persecutions was to strengthen the opposition to the Roman Catholic religion. But the Southern provinces disliking the fierce intolerance of Calvinism as much as the Northern provinces hated the Inquisition, which worked by direction of Spain and with the will of the Pope. It was this feeling which, by the signing of the league of Arras in 1579, restored the Roman Catholic Church to its former position in the Southern provinces, in spite of the fact that Spanish soldiery had been allowed to sack Antwerp.





Prince Maurice of Orange (1567-1625), son of William I., was chosen stadholder in 1584. By his military exploits, with the English under Leicester, he gradually recovered the cities in Spain's occupation.

Utrecht, however, still stood outside the Hapsburg possessions. The former, under its Duke Charles of Egmond, the "Achilles of Gelderland," maintained its integrity against all comers, provided itself with a powerful, if piratical, navy, and raised itself to a high level of prosperity rivalling that of Holland.

The reign of Philip the Fair was outwardly uneventful. He led an easy, pleasure-loving life, and when in 1506 the crown of Aragon devolved upon him in right of his wife he removed to his new kingdom



Jan van Barneveldt (1547-1619), Advocate of Holland. During the struggle between the Remonstrants and Gomariats Barneveldt was illegally arrested and beheaded at the instigation of Maurice, who feared his growing influence.

and died there a few months later. There was nothing to indicate the momentous issues involved in the change. The Netherlanders were quite accustomed to being governed from a distance, and for a time the new order was welcomed by the northern provinces, as favouring the recovery of their lost liberties. Philip was succeeded by his son Charles, a boy of six, destined to be known to history as the Emperor Charles the Fifth. The boy was born in Bruges, and thus retained a sentimental hold upon his Netherland subjects, even when, by succeeding to the crowns of Castile and Aragon, with their Italian and colonial appendages, and by his election to the Empire, his attention was necessarily engaged elsewhere. Young though he was when all this burden of empire fell upon his shoulders, he yet found time to consolidate his Netherland dominions by purchasing the lordship of Friesland, acquiring the temporal rights of Utrecht, recovering Gelderland, and thus uniting under his own rule the seventeen provinces

which represent modern Holland and Belgium. Yet it is at this moment when the political horizon of the Netherlands seemed so fair that it is necessary to take stock of the forces which were even then working towards disruption and the establishment of a free and independent state in the North. The period which opened with the accession of Charles and concluded with the death of his son Philip witnessed one of the most thrilling dramas, and at the same time one of the most momentous events



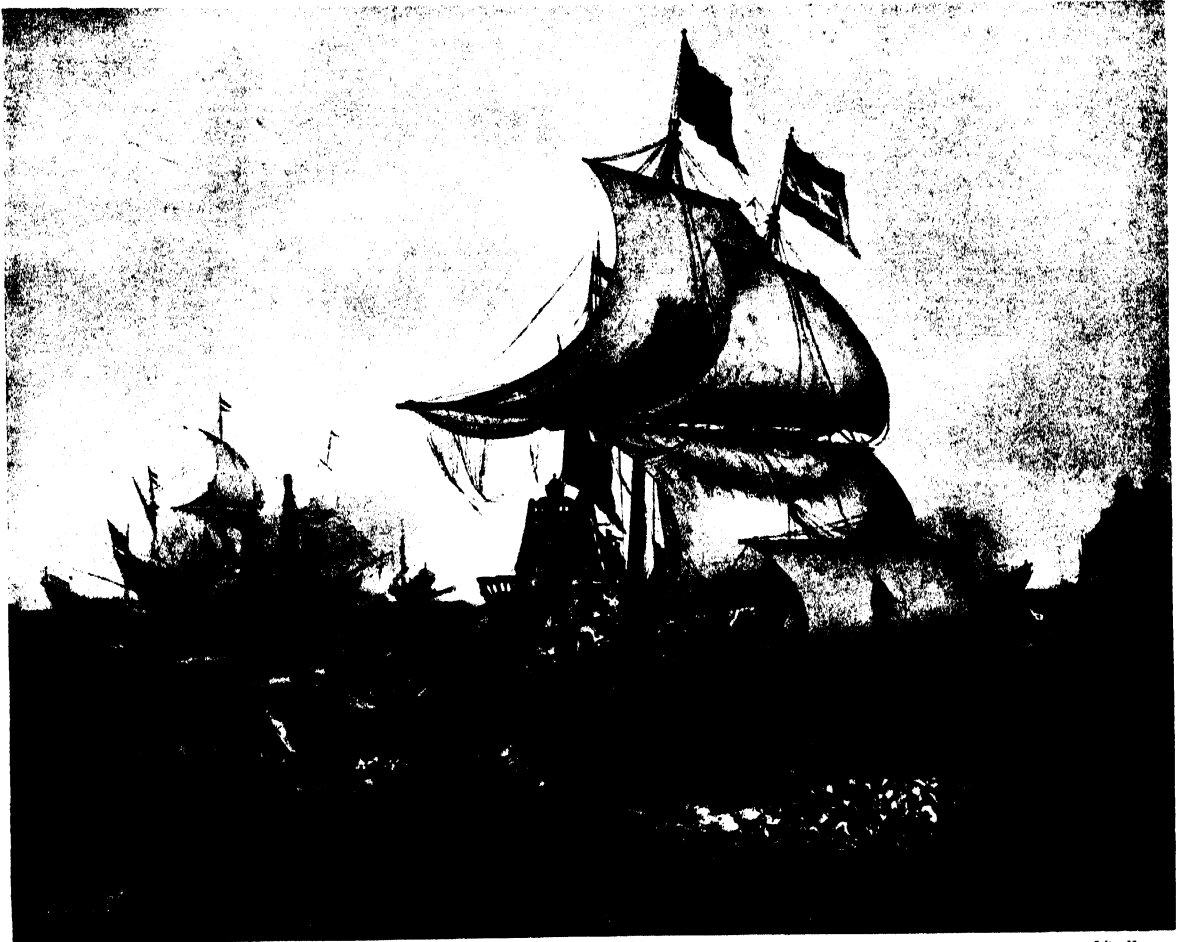
William I. of Orange (1533-1584). The great champion of the Netherlands was born at Dillenburg, Nassau. He inherited the principality of Orange (near Avignon) from a cousin.



Margaret of Parma (1522-1586) was a daughter of Charles V. A staunch Roman Catholic, she was regent of the Netherlands from 1559 to 1567, but she retired on the advent of Alva.

in history—the birth of a new state, the Dutch Republic. During this period the conglomeration of provinces which, while enjoying a species of autonomy, had acknowledged the suzerainty of the German, Burgundian, or Austrian overlord was transformed into a unified sovereign state, which was to shake an ancient empire to its foundations, and to astound the world with triumphs by land and sea.

In 1520, however, all these momentous events were in the lap of destiny. Charles was fully aware of the elements of discord in his Netherland dominions, but was too great a statesman to aggravate them. He pacified the resentment of the towns by redress of grievances and well-considered measures of reform. He won over the proud and turbulent nobles by appointing them to honourable and



*From the painting]*

*[By Vroom.*

#### THE DUTCH DESTROY THE SPANISH FLEET OFF GIBRALTAR, 1607.

The campaigns by land in 1606 and 1607 proved indecisive, but both the Spanish and Dutch appeared ready to negotiate for peace. The Spanish were further hastened in this desire by the destruction of their fleet in a naval engagement with the Dutch off Gibraltar in April, 1607. The Dutch admiral, Heemskerk, was killed at the moment of victory.

profitable offices in his service. He became virtual King of Spain, but never became a Spaniard. He was far too politic to wound the susceptibilities of the Netherlanders by thrusting aliens upon them, and although he taxed them for the benefit of his Spanish and imperial ambitions, he spared no pains to stimulate their industry and find new outlets for their expanding commerce.

Yet Charles V. failed, and set the seal of doom upon his hopes, because he did not realize, or perhaps realized too well, the silent revolution which was working among his Dutch subjects. This revolution was the spread of Protestant opinions. As early as the eleventh century the Netherlanders had displayed a tendency to criticize the growing decadence of the Church, and had granted a ready audience to intellectual and religious reformers of all kinds. In the twelfth century heretical sects were flourishing,

and the most cruel and oppressive measures were taken to stamp out the new doctrines which everywhere undermined the authority and exposed the corruption of the ecclesiastics. By the sixteenth century the Reformation was in full progress, and fostered both by the scholarly criticism of the great Erasmus of Rotterdam and the burning indignation of Luther and Calvin. It was seen that reformation meant more than a mere condemnation of existing abuses. It signified the spread of a purer, simpler faith, the adoption of a new habit of mind.

Charles V.'s devotion to the Church marked the limit of his statesmanship. The spread of heresy in the Netherlands filled him with alarm, and he promptly initiated a system of persecution which was brought to perfection by his even more bigoted son. The papal inquisition, with its attendant horrors of secret trial, torture and burning, was introduced, and a series of edicts of unparalleled severity forbade



THE SYNOD OF DORT.

Religious approval was gained for the actions of Prince Maurice by the Assembly of the Dutch Reformed Church summoned to meet at Dordrecht in 1618 and 1619. It was there that the Confession of Faith, held by the Calvinistic party as of supreme importance, was put forward.

soon realized that his little finger was thicker than his father's loins, and that their complete extirpation was the object proposed to himself by the new monarch. The towns soon realized that their wealth was to be exploited for the benefit of Spanish interests, which conflicted with their own, and that their ancient charters were so much waste paper in the eyes of their new lord. The nobles soon realized that their dignity and position were equally threatened by the Spanish officials and soldiery which Philip employed in the Netherlands. The fact of alien subjugation stood out in its bare brutality when Philip, who could not even speak to his Netherland subjects in their own language, left Brussels for Spain in 1559 never to return.

Yet though the solution of the impasse could only be found in political independence, a consummation to which the omens of two centuries had pointed, the Netherlands were slow to realize the necessity of throwing off the alien yoke. They believed that the civil and religious liberty they claimed was compatible with the centralized despotism which Philip wished to impose upon all his subject

the discussion of spiritual matters, reading of the Scriptures and devotional meetings. Thousands of heretics perished at the stake, but heresy continued to flourish. The severity of these measures not only exasperated the reformers, but seriously alarmed the Catholic nobility, who saw in them an unwarranted assertion of religious authority, and an encroachment on the ancient rights of the Netherland provinces. All ranks of society joined in unavailing protests against the edicts, and even before the resignation of Charles V. it was clear that hostility to the imperial measures was spreading far and wide.

The accession of Philip II., a Spaniard and a sour, unbending bigot, accentuated the universal discontent. The reformers



*From the painting]*

#### THE SURRENDER OF BREDA, 1625.

The incident is that of the surrender of the keys of Breda to the Spanish general, Ambrose Spinola, after a siege of eleven months. The event proved fatal to Prince Maurice, who died bitterly disappointed at his failure to relieve the city. But the capture of Breda was also the climax in the career of Spinola, who was seriously hindered by his government's lack of funds and by the jealousy of Olivares, the Spanish minister. Though he devoted his private fortune to the service of the government, Spinola met with no return.

*[By Velasquez.]*



Philip William of Orange, the eldest son of William I., succeeded his father in 1584. In his youth he was taken by Philip II. to be brought up at Madrid. He died unmarried in 1618.

peoples. Even when the Spaniards were wreaking their fury on the hapless city of Haarlem the sufferers believed that the heart of Philip could be won back to toleration and moderation. In the event, the southern Catholic Flemish provinces accepted the yoke; the northern Dutch Protestant provinces proclaimed and won their freedom, and with this triumph the real history of



Frederick Henry of Orange was the son of William I.'s fourth wife, Louise de Coligny. He succeeded Prince Maurice, and proved to be a great soldier and statesman. His son William succeeded him in 1647.

Holland begins. It is, however, the merest truism that this consummation was neither anticipated nor desired by those who first urged moderation and redress of grievances on Philip.

The new sovereign, finding himself involved in a war with France, at first displayed anxiety to propitiate his Netherland subjects, whose wealth and resources were essential to the prosecution of successful campaigns. The commercial prosperity of the Netherlands stood then at its zenith, and the King was naturally unwilling to destroy the source of his revenues. Accordingly he confirmed the

privileges of many of the towns and appointed young nobles to positions of command in his armies. In the short and triumphant operations which humbled the French monarchy Lamoral, Count of Egmont, and William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, two conspicuous members of the aristocracy, played brilliant parts.

With the removal of the French danger Philip's hands were no longer



Jan de Witt (1625-1672), Grand Pensionary of Holland and Republican statesman. He and his brother Cornelius were killed by a mob on suspicion of conspiring against the stadholder during the French invasion of 1672.



Admiral Cornelius van Tromp (1629-1691) was the worthy son of the great Martin Tromp. He saw service against Mediterranean corsairs and in De Ruyter's greatest battles with the French and English. He visited England in 1675.

tied, and he turned with renewed vigour to his father's work of extirpating heresy. He could ill tolerate the pretensions of Frenchmen, but any compromise with the swelling monster of heresy was impossible to so zealous a son of the Church as he. First the Inquisition in its most terrible Spanish form was introduced into the Netherlands. Next a scheme was put forward for reorganizing the ecclesiastical administration of the provinces, and establishing new archbishoprics and bishoprics. The proposals met with a storm of opposition, as all classes loathed the persecution of the Protestants, and the towns, nobles and native clergy saw in the new departure an ill-concealed attempt to hispaniolize the country. It was well for Philip that between the rising public temper and himself stood the regent, Margaret, Duchess of Parma, and the Council of Three, which he had formed to usurp the functions of the three national councils and forward the execution of his designs. Of this "Council of Three" the most notorious member was the Bishop of Arras, known to history as Cardinal Granvelle, a Netherlander by birth, but the able and willing tool of his Spanish master. Orange and Egmont formed a league of nobles against Granvelle, with a view to securing his dismissal and compelling Philip to govern through the properly constituted national councils. Their efforts were rewarded with a measure of success, for first Margaret took fright and dismissed the Spanish soldiery, and next Philip himself grew nervous and recommended Granvelle to seek permanent leave of absence. But though the King seemed thus worsted in the first collision, he bided the day of revenge.

It was not long in coming. In 1563 the edicts against heresy were enforced with redoubled severity, and Protestants were burned and tortured with merciless rigour, the civil governors being called on to assist the labours of the inquisitors. The effect was twofold. Heresy spread with even greater rapidity, and one by one, the governors, such as William of Orange, and the subordinate magistrates, refused to aid in the work of suppression. Three years later a confederacy of the younger nobles, headed by Louis of Nassau, Sainte Aldegonde and Brederode, was formed with the avowed object of securing reforms and the withdrawal of the Inquisition. At the same time the Calvinistic sectaries gave



[By Bartholomew Van Der Heide.]

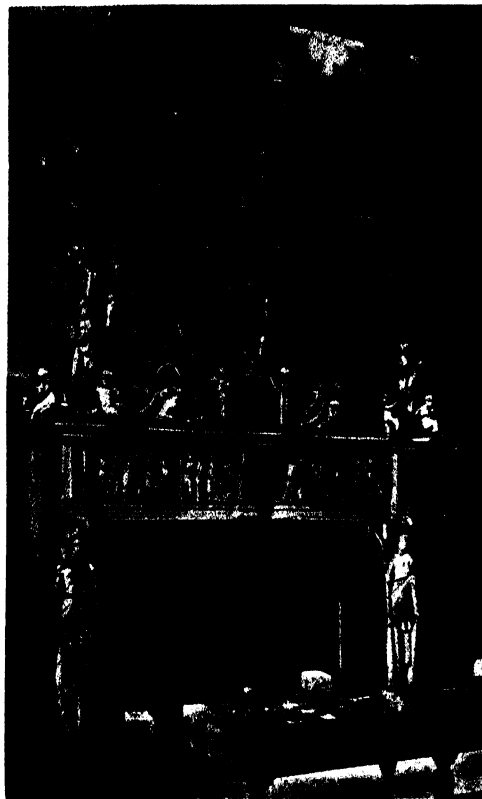
## THE COMPANY OF CAPTAIN ROELOF BICKER.

Having arrested Barneveldt and Grotius in 1618, Prince Maurice also deposed the civic governments and disbanded their guards, as he feared a movement of the burghers in favour of republicanism. The artist has depicted a convivial gathering of the civic guards of Amsterdam assembled with their captain, Roelof Bicker, outside a brewery.

proof of their power and numbers by an iconoclastic riot in Antwerp in which many of the glories of the cathedral were ruthlessly destroyed. Philip, who had welcomed a deputation for reforms by the virtual imprisonment of the deputies, lost patience, and despatched an expedition to the Netherlands under the notorious Duke of Alva. Even before his arrival the Flemish sectaries had been put down and punished, but Philip was not to be turned from his purpose.

The friends of Netherland liberties were now in a dilemma. The younger confederates contemplated open resistance, but the wiser heads, such as Orange, Egmont and Hoorn, had no thought of revolt, but still believed that Philip would ultimately listen to their. He sent men and money to his brother Louis, who won a victory over the Spaniards at Heiligerlee, but was disastrously defeated by Alva at Jemmingen. A few months later William had the mortification of seeing his army disbanded without striking a blow. Public opinion in the Netherlands was not yet ripe for revolt, and so far resistance had only been attempted by a few nobles and detached bodies of sectaries.

Meanwhile Egmont and Hoorn had been tried and executed for high treason, and this proceeding, combined with Alva's attempts at impositions for the support of his soldiery, roused the temper of the

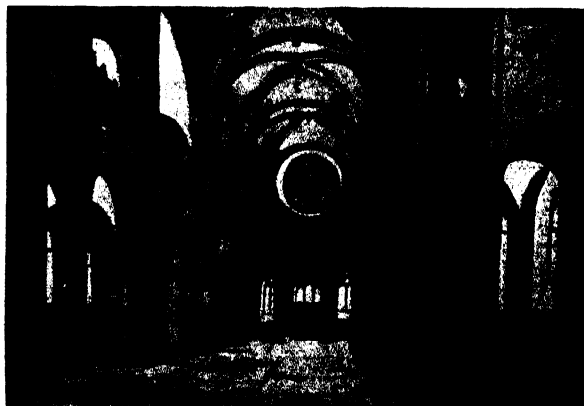


This remarkable chimney-piece of the Renaissance period is to be seen in the council-room of the town hall at Kampen in North Holland. The sculptures are the work of Jacob Colin de Nole and date from 1545.

reasonable demands. The arrival of Alva in August, 1567, soon convinced them that Philip drew no distinctions. William had taken the precaution to withdraw to his German estates, but Egmont and Hoorn remained behind, and were promptly arrested. The regent Margaret resigned, and Alva, in exercise of unlimited dictatorial powers, established a "Council of Troubles," soon to be known as the "Council of Blood," and sent out an army of spies, inquisitors, executioners, and other officials, to whom was entrusted the duty of seeking out heretics, and all who had the taint of religious or political sympathy with them. The terror that ensued drove Orange into the arms of the rebels, and shortly afterwards he adopted the Lutheran faith.



An exterior view of the choir of St. Martin's Cathedral at Utrecht. This Gothic building, which is the cathedral of the Old Catholics of Holland, was built between 1254 and 1267.



A drawing of the Romanesque Church of Our Lady at Utrecht in 1636. Pulled down early in the nineteenth century with the exception of the relic known as St. Mary's Church.



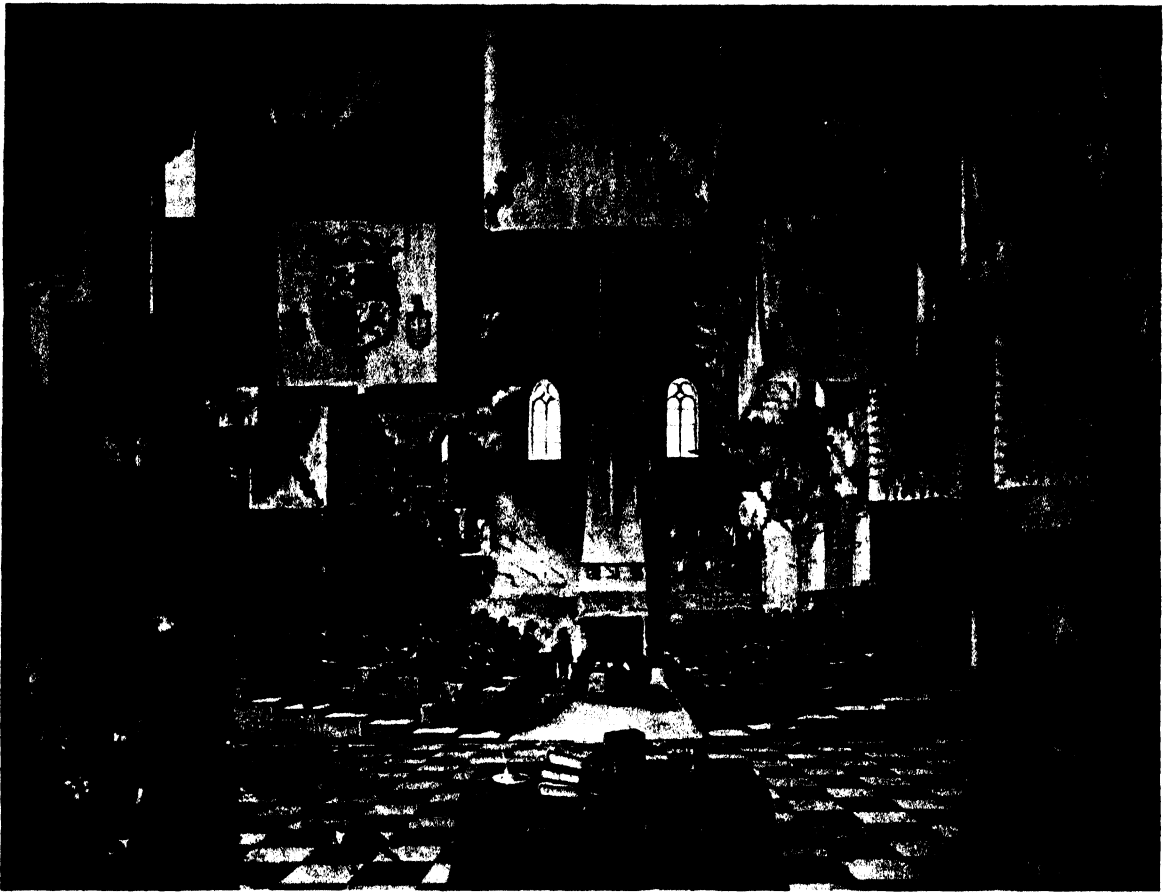
*From the painting*

#### BURGOMASTERS OF AMSTERDAM RECEIVING NEWS OF MARIE DE MEDICI.

The picture is that of the four burgomasters of Amsterdam receiving news of the arrival of Marie de Medici at Wezel in 1638. Her intrigues against the authority of Cardinal Richelieu brought about her downfall, and after escaping from imprisonment she went into exile. But her bitter attitude towards the French Huguenots left her no sympathizers amongst the Dutch, who were the kindred of the Huguenots in religious matters. At the revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685 Amsterdam welcomed the French refugees.

*[By Thomas de Keyser.]*





*[From the painting]*

*[By Dirck van Delen]*

#### THE GREAT ASSEMBLY, 1651.

At the meeting of the provincial deputies, known as the Great Assembly, the Pensionary of Holland, Jacob Catz, opened the proceedings with a speech dealing with the maintenance of the Union of 1579, religion as established by the decrees of the Synod of Dort, and the militia. The meeting took place in the hall of the Binnenhof at The Hague.

country. In 1572 the Northern provinces, inspired by the successes gained by the irregular sea levies which Orange had organized to harry Spanish commerce at sea, broke into open revolt. With these sea levies, the immortal "Beggars of the sea," the Dutch navy had its first beginnings.

The first period of the titanic struggle which is synonymous with the career of William of Orange, and closes with his death in 1584, settled two great issues. It decided that Spanish domination could not be imposed on the Dutch provinces, and also that union between these Protestant provinces and the Catholic Flemish and Walloon provinces was an idle dream. William, in the wreck of his hopes for a United Netherlands, learned the sorrows of Civilis, but, unlike Civilis, he knew that the alien yoke had been cast off.

The first seven years of the struggle, from 1567 to 1574, were a period of almost unrelieved disaster for the insurgents. The ill-trained armies of William and his brothers were no match for Alva's veterans, and after defeats in the south, the Prince established himself in the province of Holland, where he was given almost unlimited powers. He was unable to do anything to stem the victorious Spanish march northwards or to avert the fall of Haarlem, which cost the invaders eight months' delay and ten thousand men. The only bright spot in the black picture was the success at sea of the "Beggars," who, growing in numbers and experience, cleared the Spaniards out of the Scheldt islands and annihilated Alva's fleet. Alva resigned his post, returned to Spain, and was replaced by Requesens. William marked the occasion by renewing his demands for religious toleration, the restoration of all ancient rights and liberties and the dismissal of Spanish officials and soldiers. The

idea of religious toleration, however, was utterly detestable to Philip, and military operations were renewed. Louis of Nassau was defeated and killed at the Battle of Mookerheide, but the Spaniards were driven from Leyden after a siege lasting four months.

Two years later William secured a federation of the provinces of Holland and Zeeland, and in 1576, after Antwerp had been sacked in a fearful Spanish mutiny, he induced all the states of the Netherlands to sign the "Pacification of Ghent," a treaty of alliance which recognized the sovereignty of Spain, but aimed at the expulsion of foreigners, the restoration of the charters and universal religious toleration. William's efforts seemed to have been crowned with success when Philip gave way, and he himself was accorded a triumphal entry into Brussels. Within six months the illusion of success was rudely shattered. The natural antagonism of the Northern and Southern states militated against harmonious co-operation, and Philip had no intention of keeping faith. He sent Alexander Farnese to join the governor with a large Spanish force, and the Netherlands were easily routed at Gembloux. Farnese was a diplomatist of the first order, and set himself to detach the southern Catholics from their Protestant confederates. This was not difficult. The southern Walloon provinces were soon alarmed at the excesses of the Calvinistic sectaries, who for a short time gained possession of some of the Flemish cities. Walloon religious susceptibilities were skilfully played upon by the diplomatic Parma, and under his ægis they seceded from the Union of Brussels. Their action was a cruel blow to William, but it showed the Northern provinces that henceforth they must look to themselves for their deliverance. They immediately formed a new compact—the Union of Utrecht—which definitely disclaimed all allegiance to the Spanish. The league did not feel itself strong enough to dispense with foreign assistance, and not without grave misgivings, a French prince, the Duke of Anjou, was invited to become ruler of the new state. Holland and Zeeland, however, while recognizing the sovereignty of Anjou, made William their count. Anjou soon proved himself the weak, vainglorious, treacherous creature he was, and after attempting to seize Antwerp by a *coup de main*, he was compelled to withdraw from the country. All eyes were now turned on William, but the "Father of his country" was still unwilling to assume the



From the painting]

NAVAL BATTLE OFF LEGHORN, 1653.

[By R. Nooms.

The Navigation Act of 1651 struck a deadly blow at Dutch shipping, and it therefore marked the beginning of the struggle for command of the sea. On July 13th, 1653, a naval battle was fought off Leghorn between the English and the Dutch, under Van Galen, who was killed. Cornelius van Tromp took part in the fight, and was afterwards made rear-admiral.

sovereignty, and before his reluctance could be overcome he fell a victim in 1584 to the pistol of Balthasar Gerard.

There are few characters in history with a higher claim on human reverence and affection than that of William the Silent. Few men have more richly deserved the epitaph provided by the comment of a contemporary: "There was universal mourning, and even the little children wept in the streets."

The Netherlands had good cause to mourn their loss, for their cause was critical indeed. The last, the only antagonist worthy of the great Parma was now removed from his path. The Catholic provinces, and finally Antwerp also, fell before his diplomacy or his arms. The Protestant provinces were isolated, and once more the States-General turned to foreigners for help. Henry III. of France was unwilling to take up their quarrel, but Queen Elizabeth of England responded to their invitation, and though unwilling to assume the title of sovereign, she sent a small force to their aid, commanded by the Earl of Leicester. In 1586 Leicester landed and was made governor-general. The actual command of the Dutch naval



*From the painting]*

*[fig W. Van Der Velde.*

#### THE FOUR DAYS' NAVAL BATTLE BETWEEN THE DUTCH AND ENGLISH FLEETS, 1666.

The re-enactment of the Navigation Act by Charles II. was the signal for the outbreak once more of war between England and Holland. The hostilities were marked by a series of tremendous naval combats, and in 1666 a great battle raged for four days, from 11th to 14th of June, between De Ruyter and Monk. The result was a hard-fought victory for De Ruyter.

and military forces was vested in Maurice of Nassau, the second son of William the Silent, who was then a youth of nineteen.

From the first the new arrangement proved impracticable. Leicester was far from competent, and some of the English commanders even descended to treachery. No headway could be made against Parma, and the English were soon suspected and discredited. Englishmen can take no pride in this unhappy adventure, though the dark picture was somewhat relieved by the heroic death of Sir Philip Sidney at Zutphen. In 1587, defeated and disgraced, Leicester returned to England.

After his departure the Dutch leaders were Maurice and Jan van Barneveldt, advocate of Holland, who devoted himself to securing closer union between the provinces and adapting the machinery of government to that end. In a short time this able man became virtual ruler of the new republic, while Maurice commanded on sea and land.

In 1591 Maurice commenced a series of campaigns which proved him a general of the first order. Parma himself was baffled by the military genius of this young man of twenty-four, and the Spaniards



*From the painting*

#### THE EMBARKATION OF DE RUYTER AND CORNELIUS DE WITT, 1667.

Cornelius de Witt, brother of the Grand Pensionary, was the deputy chosen by the states to accompany De Ruyter in his expedition to Chatham in 1667. On this occasion he distinguished himself greatly by his coolness and daring. He again sailed with De Ruyter in 1672, and was present at Sole Bay, where the Dutch fought a great but indecisive battle with the French and English fleets.

*[By Eugene Labey.*



Painted by]

[Jan Peters.

#### THE BURNING OF THE ENGLISH FLEET OFF ROCHESTER. 1667.

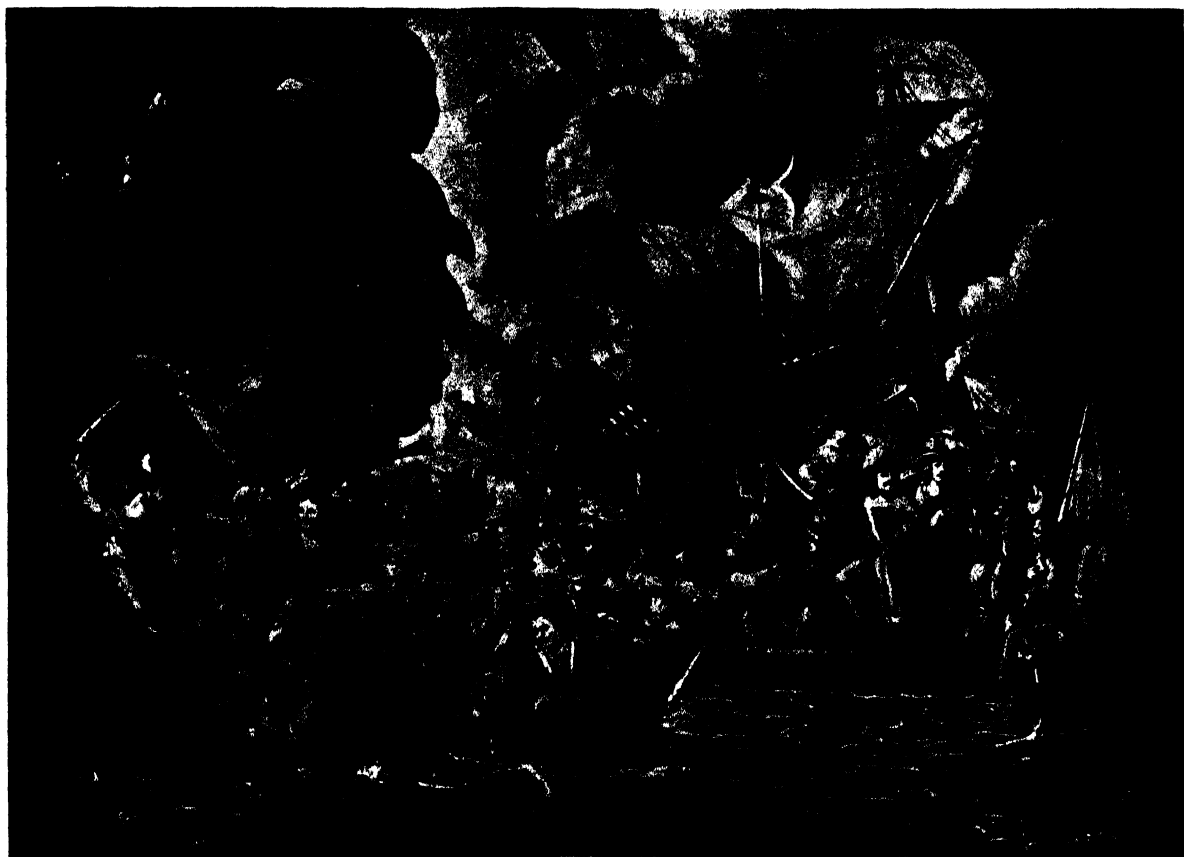
Hostilities having lasted for three years, De Witt commenced to negotiate with England while he fitted out a powerful fleet. This fleet, under the command of Admiral de Ruyter, appeared suddenly in the Thames on June 11th, 1667, and sailed up the Medway as far as Rochester, where some English ships were burnt.

were speedily expelled from Dutch territory. By these victories the new state, under the name of the United Provinces, attracted the attention of Europe, and in 1596 was officially recognized when an alliance was concluded with France and England. The alliance was followed by further triumphs. Philip II. of Spain died in 1598, leaving his dominions in the Netherlands as an independent kingdom to his daughter Isabel and her husband, Albert of Austria. The Dutch States-General, flushed with success, had no mind to surrender their independence to the new rulers, and the war proceeded vigorously by land and sea. During the next twelve years the career of Maurice was less dazzling, and more than once he felt the touch of adversity. The United Provinces had virtually secured their independence; the war was a great strain on their resources, and the country longed for peace. Barneveldt headed the peace party in the States-General, and in 1609 the opposition of Maurice and the fire-eating military party was overcome, and a truce for twelve years was concluded with Spain. By this truce the Dutch secured the recognition of their independence. The Spaniards had demanded that they should permit freedom of worship to the Catholics in Holland, and also that they should cease their lucrative trade in the East Indies; but the Dutch were obdurate, and in the treaty itself nothing was said about these vexed questions.

By this treaty Holland entered into the family of European nations and was recognized as a Power. Unhappily the Dutch failed to exhibit the qualities demanded by their new dignity, and the years of truce were distinguished by an acrimonious religious and political controversy, which culminated in a scandalous crime. The political quarrel was in great measure due to natural causes. The relations between the separate provinces which had combined for defence against foreign aggression were very ill-defined. The States-General, in which they were all represented, was at best a weak bond between them. Holland was by far the richest and most important province, and, along with Zeeland, had borne the brunt of the burden and cost of the war. Holland conceived herself entitled to a supreme

voice in the direction of affairs, and roused the fears and jealousies of the other states, which gathered round Maurice, who stood for a strong central authority. Barneveldt, whose diplomacy had secured the truce, stood out as the champion of Holland, and what we should now call "States rights," while Maurice was anxious to secure the sovereignty which had been offered to, and refused by, his great father. A religious controversy, arising out of a theological dispute between two professors at Leyden, embittered the relations between the two political parties. Barneveldt, speaking in the name of Holland, demanded that each province should be allowed to raise and equip its own levies for its defence. Such a suggestion was intensely obnoxious to Maurice as head of the army, and with the approval of the majority of the States-General he proceeded to compel the cities of Holland to disband their levies. In 1619 Barneveldt was arrested and executed, after a trial which was the merest mockery.

This incident gravely affected the prestige of the Dutch in the eyes of Europe. Nevertheless, the new state at this moment was both powerful and prosperous. The Dutch founded great trading colonies in the East and West Indies, deriving from them revenues greater even than those which had kept the Spanish Empire solvent in the previous century. Amsterdam had succeeded Bruges and Antwerp as the centre of the world's commerce, and the Dutch navy rode supreme in European waters. Continental rivals now began to cast envious eyes on Dutch art, no less than on Dutch industry. The zenith of Dutch greatness, however, was not reached until the truce ended and the war broke out afresh in 1621. Maurice died in 1625, and was succeeded by his half-brother, another and greater son of William the Silent. The first efforts of the new stadholder were to silence the voice of controversy, and by his immense personal popularity and diplomatic manner unite all parties in the state. Even



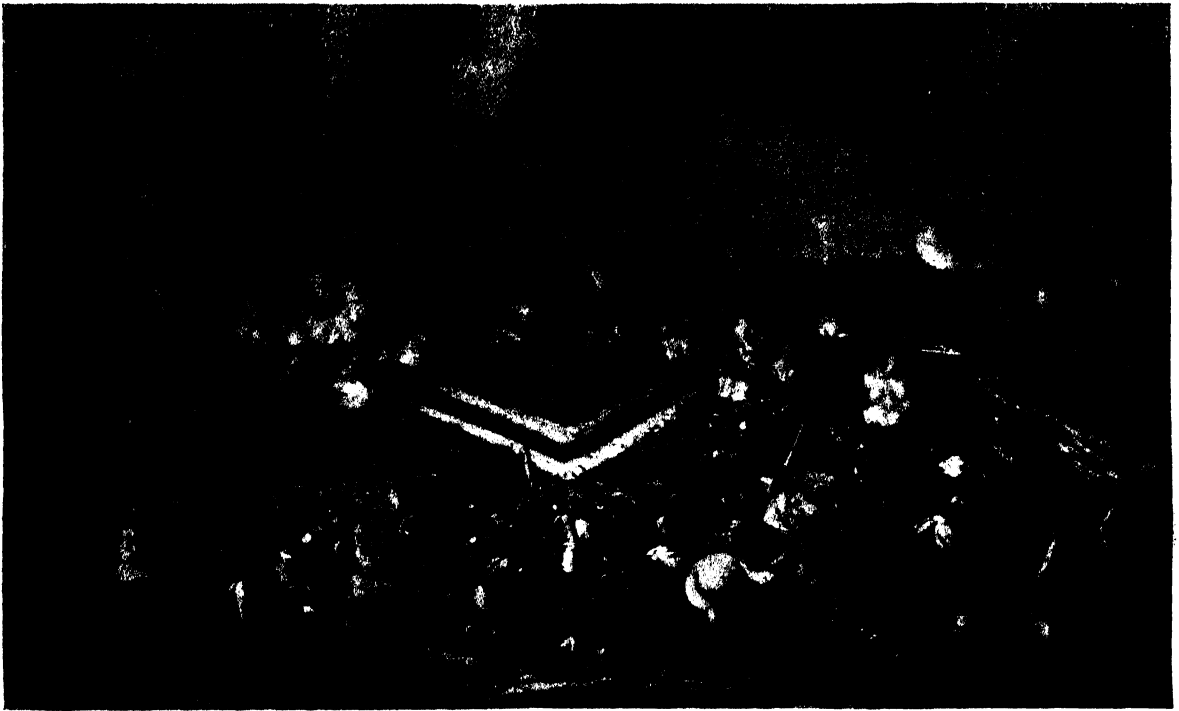
THE DUTCH SAILING UP THE THAMES OFF ROCHESTER, 1667.

De Ruyter's raid on the English fleet in the Medway off Rochester in June, 1667, was an act of great courage on the part of the Dutch admiral. Its success was in some measure due to the unexpectedness of the assault, and there was a considerable amount of hand-to-hand fighting.

Holland, jealous as ever of a supreme authority, was won over by him, and in 1631 the office of stadholder was made hereditary in his family. With the country thus behind him, Frederick Henry was able to claim that voice in European politics which the influence and resources of the Republic warranted. The Continent at this moment was convulsed by the Thirty Years' War, and Dutch sympathies were naturally with their Protestant co-religionists in Germany, but feeling his powerlessness to render them effective assistance without support, the stadholder concluded an alliance with France.

From 1629 to 1639 Frederick Henry conducted campaigns in the Spanish Netherlands with almost unbroken success. His most remarkable achievements were the sieges of Hertogenbosch in 1629, of Maestricht in 1632, and of Breda in 1637; but the greatest triumph of the war was the Battle of the Downs in 1639, when the Dutch Admiral Tromp destroyed the pride of the Spanish navy and secured to his country its naval supremacy.

The war, however, was not without its ill-effects, for the stadholder had to contend with the opposi-

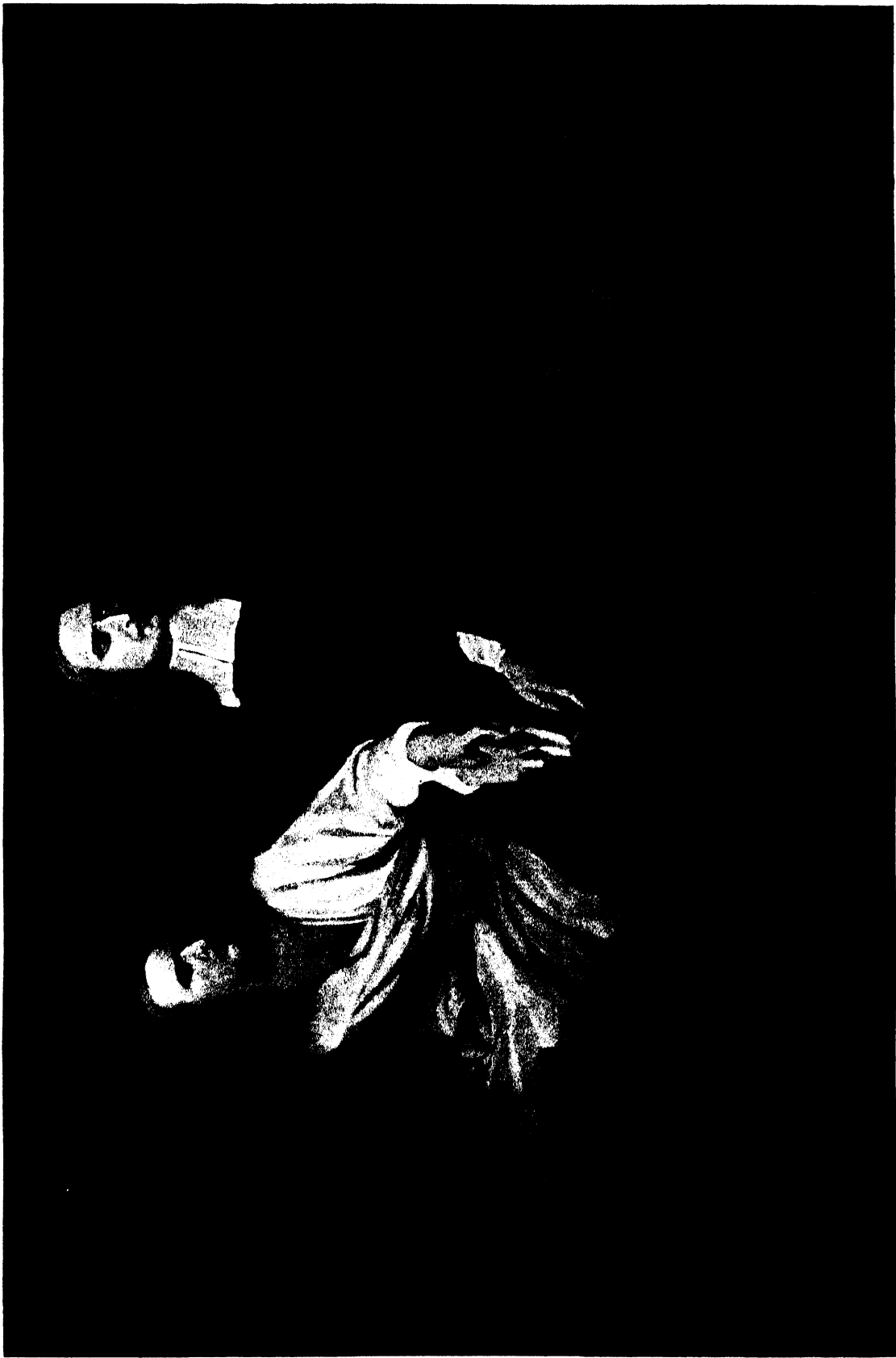


THE ASSAULT ON KOEVORDEN, 1672.

Between 1668 and 1672 Louis XIV. made his plans for the destruction of Holland, which he intended to accomplish by invading the country in overwhelming numbers. The country was ill-prepared for a land campaign, and town after town fell before the French. The incident is that of the assault on the Dutch fortress of Koevorden by the French in 1672.

tion of a peace party at home and the growing hostility of England abroad. This latter danger was temporarily checked by the marriage of his son William with the daughter of Charles I., but the former might have proved formidable had not the Dutch and French victories of 1640 to 1645 brought Frederick Henry's views largely into accord with those of his political opponents. It was seen that Spain was no longer an enemy to be feared, that her weakness meant the exaltation of France which had avowed designs on the Spanish Netherlands, and that a mighty France could, and would, be a more dangerous neighbour than an impotent Spain. Accordingly negotiations were set on foot, and after Frederick Henry's death in 1647 were brought to a successful conclusion by the Treaty of Westphalia, or Peace of Münster, in 1648.

This treaty, while recognizing the independence of the Dutch, embodied substantial advantages. Frederick Henry's conquests in Northern Brabant and Flanders were definitively secured, the Scheldt was declared closed, and unhampered trade with the flourishing Dutch colonies was assured.



*Painted by*

#### THE IMPRISONED DE WITT BROTHERS.

Jan de Witt was leader of the Republican party in the Netherlands, which stoutly opposed the cause of Prince William of Orange. In 1672 William was elected stadholder and captain-general. The tide had turned against De Witt, and he was no longer regarded as formerly with public favour. His brother Cornelius de Witt, who was said to be implicated in a plot against the life of the stadholder, was imprisoned and tortured. And on visiting him in prison on August 20th, 1672, they were attacked by the enraged mob and torn to pieces

*[G. Wappers.]*





THE PEACE OF NYMWEGEN, 1678

The project of Louis XIV. was to completely ruin the United Provinces from a military and an economic point of view, so as to annex them to French Flanders. But Europe being at last awake to the significance of the French invasion, a coalition was formed against France, and the French army was obliged to evacuate Holland. By the Peace of Nymwegen complete independence was restored to the Dutch.

Unfortunately it formed a starting-point for fresh internal dissensions, and bequeathed a legacy of ill-feeling with England, which led to harassing wars and ultimate downfall.

The new stadholder William II. was only twenty years of age, disliked the treaty, and was anxious to prove that the military genius of his house was not extinct. Further, he was burning to restore the royalist cause in England and to make his authority supreme in his own country. He was immediately involved in controversy with the province of Holland which reasserted its ancient claim to manage its own affairs, if necessary, acting independently of the States-General, and, in particular, to disband that portion of the army which had been raised within its own borders. William and the army resisted this claim, and the stadholder was compelled to resort to force before the anti-Orange party gave way. In 1650 William died suddenly, and an heir, the later William III., was not born until after his death. The tables were at once turned. Holland took the lead in the work of government. Each province was to manage its own affairs, and no stadholder should be appointed, but in practice the administration of the country was committed to the able hands of John de Witt, grand pensionary of Holland and leader of the anti-Orange party. A revival of the House of Orange meant the subjection of the individual provinces, and to such a height was the fear of this eventuality carried that in 1654 the government consented, as the price of peace with England, to pass an act which barred the young heir from assuming the office of stadholder.

The series of naval wars with England, though the Dutch more than held their own, were extremely disastrous for the Republic. The English Parliament threatened the Dutch carrying trade with ruin

by its Navigation Act in 1651, and from 1652 to 1654 several naval battles took place with varying fortunes. Ten years later the contest was renewed, and the Dutch Admiral de Ruyter won undying fame by his heroism and seamanship in the great battles of 1666 and 1667, in which latter year the Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway and burned an English fleet. But though the strategical advantage thus lay with the Dutch, they were glad enough to sign the Treaty of Breda in 1667. The contest was one-sided, for England had an overwhelming advantage in men and money. The Republic was impoverished by the perpetual drain on its resources, and a new enemy, more crafty and formidable, was appearing. This was Louis XIV. of France, who made no secret of his designs on the Spanish and Dutch Netherlands. The old friendship of Holland and France had given way to profound distrust on the one side and covetousness on the other.

The foreign policy of John de Witt did not endear his country to the powers of Europe, who looked on idly when, in 1672, Louis despatched an immense army to subjugate the Dutch. The Republic was panic-stricken. There was no army and no leader, and from force of habit, if for no other reason, William III. was drawn from his seclusion and elected stadholder and captain-general. A wave of popular enthusiasm swept aside John de Witt, and all turned to the representative of the great house which had so often been the saviour of its country. The French army drew nearer, and as all seemed lost, John de Witt resolved to accept the French terms, but William repudiated his action, and foiled the invaders by opening the dykes and flooding the country. The general fear was turned to anger against John de Witt and his brother, and they were murdered by a mob on the 20th of August, 1672.

The immediate effect of the crime was to leave William's position unchallenged. The stadholderate was made hereditary in his family, but the Dutch were careful to confer upon him strictly limited and constitutional authority. The bogey of absolute monarchy was ever before their eyes. All through his life William chafed at the restrictions imposed upon him, and as he soon learned that war strengthened his hands and made these restrictions nominal, he was tempted to embark on wars of which the immediate advantage to his country was problematical.

His first experiences in the art of war were far from encouraging.



*From the painting]*

*[By Frans Hals*

MICHAEL ADRIANZOOM DE RUYTER, 1607-1676.

Admiral de Ruyter was born at Flushing on March 24th, 1607, and began his seafaring life as a cabin-boy when eleven years old. He was the hero of many naval battles with the English, notably those off the North Foreland and at Southwold Bay. He died at Syracuse on April 29th, 1676, from a mortal wound received in fighting the French off Messina.

The French were unable to negotiate the floods, but William failed when he attempted to take the offensive in 1073, and his army was small and badly trained. Fortunately the stadholder was a greater diplomatist than commander, and by playing on the apprehensions of Sweden, Denmark, Spain, and the Empire, he secured the assistance of these powers. At sea de Ruyter obtained the advantage in a fierce action with the French and English fleets in 1673. The same year the Dutch made peace with England, but the war with France continued with varying fortunes until 1678, when the Treaty of Nymwegen was signed, on the footing that the French restored all their conquests. The treaty was opposed by William, partly on the grounds that it did not represent a fair return for the sacrifices of the Dutch, and partly because he knew that in time of peace his powers would be reduced to those of first magistrate. Meanwhile the Dutch had been taxed almost to the limit of their resources to



*After the picture]*

*[By L'Esque.*

#### THE DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH AT THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM, 1704.

On the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession in 1702, Marlborough was made commander-in-chief of the British army in the Netherlands. After many successes, the English commanded by Marlborough and the Austrians by Prince Eugene met the French and Bavarians on Bavarian soil in a conflict which resulted on August 13th in the overthrow of the French at the battle of Blenheim.

support the war, and the conflicts with England had almost ruined their colonial trade. The one solid advantage other than the maintenance of their independence was William's marriage to Mary, daughter of the Duke of York, an alliance which was to have results of the greatest importance.

From the moment the Treaty of Nymwegen was signed William worked to organize a coalition against France. His efforts in this direction were greatly strengthened when he became King of England in 1688, and next year the Grand Alliance of England, Holland, Spain and Germany sprang into existence to curb the overweening ambitions of Louis XIV. Its immediate achievements were far from promising. William himself was twice defeated, though he displayed marvellous skill in making good his losses. In 1692, however, the English and Dutch won a decisive success at sea, and an attempted French invasion of England ended in a fiasco. Three years later William achieved a brilliant exploit in the recapture of Namur, but both sides were growing tired, and in 1697 the Treaty of Ryswick was concluded, whereby the Dutch were guaranteed the right of garrisoning the barrier fortresses of Belgium.



*From the painting*

*[By Felix Philippoteaux.]*

### THE BATTLE OF FONTENOY, 1745

By giving guarantees to Charles VI. to uphold the Pragmatic Sanction, which settled the law of succession in respect to the dominions of the House of Hapsburg, the Dutch were compelled to enter the war of the Austrian Succession. They took part in the campaign of 1745, and suffered heavily at the battle of Fontenoy. The Allies were defeated by the invading army of the French under Marshal Saxe, who overran the Austrian Netherlands and captured the towns of the barrier country. The scene depicted in this very realistic picture is that of the Allies advancing to the attack against the French lines, which are seen in the foreground.

William's enmity and distrust, however, did not cease with the Treaty, which proved to be a truce of but four years' duration. He was on the point of once more taking up the French challenge when he died in 1702.

The states immediately reasserted their ancient particularist rights, and a new stadholder, since William left no children, was not appointed. The real ruler of the country was the grand pensionary Heinsius, an able statesman and close friend of William. As the war progressed and the victories of the allies reduced France to impotence, the Dutch came to realize that the old peril had passed away, and eminently successful, and though Holland had ceased to count as a great power, it was still the envy of the larger but less wealthy states of Europe. The effect of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes



*From the painting]*

*[By Ozias Humphry, R.A.]*

William I., Prince of Orange (1772-1844). He left Holland on its occupation by the French army under Pichegru, and fought subsequently against Napoleon at Jena and Wagram. Returning on the revolt against the French in 1814, he was proclaimed king.

their feelings became more lukewarm. The comparative weakness of the navy reduced their position in Europe to that of a second-rate power, and there was a growing reluctance to be involved in continental complications. The Treaty of Utrecht gave to the Dutch the great fortress barrier of Belgium, but otherwise nothing commensurate with the lavish sacrifices they had made. Henceforth the necessity of preserving peace became a cardinal point of the foreign policy of the Republic.

The immediate concern of the Dutch was now to repair the ravages of war and recover some of the colonial trade which had been lost. In this they were



*From the painting]*

*[By John Hoppner.]*

Princess Frederica Wilhelmina was the daughter of Frederick William II, of Prussia, and her marriage with William I. of Holland further strengthened the relationship existing between the houses of Hohenzollern and Orange-Nassau, William I.'s mother being Sophia Wilhelmina, sister of Frederick William II.

and the persecution of the Huguenots in France was to send thousands of the best and most skilled French artisans to find homes in Holland and England, and establish new and flourishing industries in their adopted countries. Nevertheless, with all this material prosperity the influence of the Republic was on the wane. The Dutch ceased to make their



William III. (1817-1890). King of the Netherlands, was born at Brussels on February 19th, 1817. A capable constitutional monarch, who without seeking popular favour won the affectionate loyalty of his subjects. His three sons predeceased him, but a direct heir was born in the person of the present Queen in 1880.

voice heard in the counsels of Europe and to interfere in the affairs of their neighbours, except when they conceived their commercial interests to be imperilled. Thus, for example, there was an outburst of hostility in 1722, when the Austrian ruler of the Belgian Netherlands, in a sincere desire to do something for his unhappy subjects, founded the Ostend East India Company to rival the Dutch and English companies. So intense was the opposition of the Dutch that he was finally compelled to abandon the project. This success, however, reacted on the Dutch by involving them once more in foreign complications. In 1733, the representative of the House of Orange—William, a nephew of William III.—came into prominence by marrying the eldest daughter of George II. of England. The republican party, ever mindful of their ancient fears and jealousies, grew nervous at this accession of power to the house which still retained a great sentimental hold on the Dutch. In another respect their apprehension was well founded, for they were shrewd enough to see that the English connection would involve their



*From the painting]*

*[By J. T. Serres.]*

## THE ENGAGEMENT BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND DUTCH OFF THE DOGGER BANK, 1781.

Owing to the British Government's attitude with regard to neutral shipping and the losses of Dutch commerce at the hands of British privateers, the Dutch were induced in 1780 to join the league of "Armed Neutrality." During the war which followed Admiral Parker engaged the Dutch fleet under Admiral Zontman on August 5th, 1781, in an obstinate but indecisive battle off the Dogger Bank.

country in the diplomatic tangles of England, or rather of Hanover, the interests of which were far dearer to George II. than those of his new kingdom.

In 1743 the War of the Austrian Succession broke out, and the Dutch were once more called to arms. They had promised to secure the succession of Maria Theresa as the price of the extinction of the Ostend Company, and they loyally honoured their bond, though they had little direct interest in the outcome of the struggle. The Dutch took the field with their allies against the French, and shared in the defeat of Fontenoy in 1745. The French at once overran the Austrian Netherlands, occupied the barrier towns, and invaded Dutch Flanders itself. The crisis of 1672 seemed on the verge of repetition, and as in 1672 the people turned to the House of Orange for a saviour, so in 1747 popular clamour called for Prince William. The States-General appointed him stadholder of all the provinces, and he was put in supreme command of the military and naval forces. William IV., however, had nothing of the genius of his house. He was benevolent and well-intentioned, but his abilities were very mediocre and it was

mainly through his connexion with the royal House of England that satisfactory terms were obtained for the Dutch in the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. The Dutch rewarded even this measure of success by making the office of stadholder hereditary in his family. The truth was that the people were tired of the ancient feud between the Orange partisans and their opponents and had come to realize that their internal dissensions were a standing menace to the security of the country. Henceforth though the government remained republican in form, effective power was transferred to the stadholder, and the individual provinces ceased to exercise authority save in minor local business.

Holland had been almost ruined by the last war, and peace was an imperative necessity. In 1751 William IV. died, and his heir was a child of three, to whom his mother, Anne of England, and then the



[the painting]

[By D. Orme.

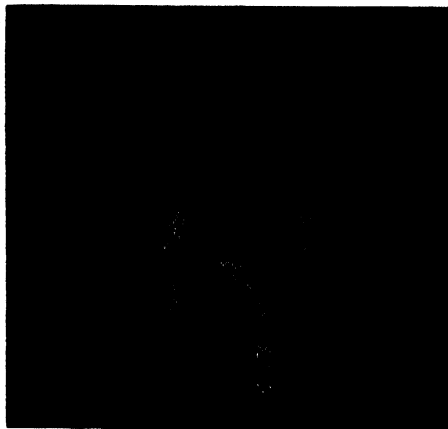
#### ADMIRAL DE WINTER SURRENDERING HIS SWORD TO LORD DUNCAN.

The alliance of the Dutch Republic with France brought them once more into a struggle with the English by sea. On October 11th, 1797, the Dutch encountered Admiral Duncan's fleet off Camperdown. The Dutch were defeated after a hard struggle, and Admiral De Winter was taken prisoner. Though court-martialled on his return to Holland, he was declared to have honourably maintained the traditions of the Dutch flag.

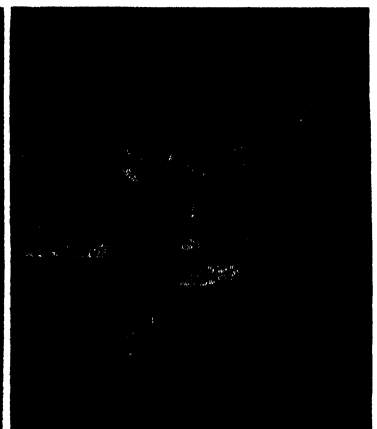
States-General, acted as regent. Holland remained neutral throughout the Seven Years' War from 1756 to 1763, but nevertheless suffered severely from the depredations of English privateers, which destroyed large numbers of Dutch merchantmen on the plea that they carried contraband of war to the French. During this period the young heir was entirely subject to his guardian, the Duke of Brunswick, and continued so even after 1766, when he attained his majority. Next year he married a Prussian princess, and Holland was drawn even further into the orbit of international politics. The provinces were powerless. The States-General exercised little or no control in the work of government, and the Prince of Orange exercised autocratic authority, in fact, if not in name. Nevertheless, although ancient rights and privileges seemed to lie prostrate at the feet of absolutism, a movement for reform on a democratic basis was rapidly spreading throughout the country. Two events before the end of the century gave



A Dutch court-yard, by Pieter De Hooch (1629-1678). A charming painter of Dutch home life. Interiors by him are perfect, reflecting the light of day in differing intensity and with subtle varieties of tone.



"The Happy Family," by Jan Steen (1626-1679). His paintings are distinguished for correctness and spiritedness in drawing. His work is represented by a wide variety of subjects. Many are humorous, but they sometimes recall Hogarth in their satire of human life.



"The Jovial Breakfast," by Gabriel Metsu (1630-1667). He painted religious subjects, but his later work ranges from the drawing-room to the tavern. His boldness of touch possibly receives inspiration from Hals.



"The Avenue of Poplars," by Meindert Hobbema (1638-1709). He is said to have studied art under Jacob Ruysdael. His subjects are usually those of the countryside, such as woodland scenery. His effects of light and shade in landscapes are astonishing, and he is regarded as one of the greatest of the Dutch landscape painters.



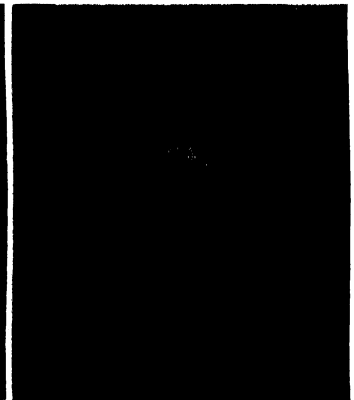
A view of Delft, by Jan Van Der Meer (1632-1675), of Delft. Underservedly neglected by Dutch biographers, who say little about him. There is charm and delicacy of tone in all his work, and in his paintings of interiors he closely resembles De Hooch. He employs most exquisite silvery and pearl grey tones.



A portrait of Paul Potter, by Bartholomew Van Der Helst (1611-1670). His work is ranked amongst the best of the Dutch portrait painters, but it lacks real harmony and composition.



Officers of the St. Andrew's Corps of Archers, by Frans Hals (1580-1666), a native of Antwerp who had settled in Haarlem. He is regarded as the first exponent of the Dutch school of genre painting, and his work displays wonderful technique.



A portrait of himself by Rembrandt Harmans Van Rijn (1606-1669). Best known by his baptismal name of Rembrandt, he was the greatest of all Dutch painters.





*From the painting]*

#### GENERAL PICHEGRU MAKING A RECONNAISSANCE.

*[By A. Lalanze.*

The picture depicts a scene on the seashore near Ostend, which in 1795 formed part of the Austrian Empire. General Pichegru of the invading army of France is seen discussing with a fisherman footprints in the sand, possibly with fears of an enemy by sea who might land to attack him.

this movement an impetus which swept aside all barriers. The first was the successful revolt of the American colonies and the foundation of a democratic republic, and the second was the outbreak of the French Revolution. The part played by the Dutch in the American War of Independence was not very distinguished, and certainly unprofitable. William V. was anxious, if not to assist the English, at least to preserve the neutrality of his country in their interests; but the English claim to an unlimited right of search aroused the hostility of neutral states, and Catherine II. of Russia was able to organize a league, the "Armed Neutrality" of 1780, to resist the English pretensions. Holland joined the league next year, and suffered severely in the maritime war which followed. Though the main fleet fought a creditable action with the English in the North Sea, British ships almost destroyed Dutch commerce, and conducted vigorous operations against Dutch colonies. When peace was made two years later, it was only on the terms that England should keep some of the Dutch colonies in the East Indies which had been seized.

These misfortunes widened the breach between the republican party, now becoming known as the "Patriots," and the stadholder. Men of all shades of opinion were convinced that William V. had no will of his own, and that his policy was guided by the interests of his English or Prussian relations. The Patriots set to work to cut down his prerogative, assert the ancient rights of the States, and reduce him to the position of constitutional figurehead of the republic which his predecessors had enjoyed. Seeing himself thus threatened, the distracted stadholder complained to his Prussian wife's uncle of the indignities to which he was subjected. Frederick the Great intervened with threats, but the incident only served to make the stadholder more unpopular. The States cut down his powers yet further, and the country was soon divided into an Orange party and a "Patriot" party, between which collision was sooner or later inevitable. In 1787 affairs reached a crisis and civil war began. William once again turned to the King of Prussia, who promptly invaded Holland, besieged and captured Amsterdam,

and restored the supremacy of the Orange party. The constitution still remained republican in form, but in reality the power of the stadholder was absolute, and his position was secured by a formal alliance of Holland with Prussia and England. But though the Patriot party seemed thus extinguished, the outbreak of the French Revolution immediately showed the latent strength it possessed. The revolutionary movement in France was followed sympathetically in Holland, and the sympathy was translated into active assistance when a French army under Pichegru entered the country in 1795. The hated stadholder, with his foreign hirelings, took refuge in ignominious flight, and the Dutch, in imitation of their new brothers-in-arms, reconstituted themselves into the Batavian Republic, to all intents and purposes a dependency of France. After a few years the dependence became real subjection, as France embarked on her career of universal domination and experienced a progressive degeneration of her best instincts. New-fangled constitutions succeeded each other, and in 1805 Napoleon made Holland a dependent state under his brother Louis, with the title of King. Meanwhile the Dutch had been involved in the French wars with England, and their colonies lay at the mercy of the mistress of the seas.

After four years Louis discovered that he was merely the puppet of Napoleon and realized the danger of standing between the autocrat and his subject peoples. He abdicated in 1810, and Napoleon promptly declared the kingdom an integral portion of the French Empire and governed it himself. The Dutch now became little more than hewers of wood and drawers of water to their overlord, and though he gave them peace and strong rule, he ruined them with oppressive taxation and the prolonged war with England cut them off from their colonies, the real source of their wealth. Such was the reaction from the revolutionary enthusiasm of 1792 that when the tyrant's power was broken at the Battle of Leipsic in 1813 the Dutch were the first to throw off the alien yoke, to recall a son of the detested William V., and offer him the crown under a new constitution based on the principle of



THE MARRIAGE OF QUEEN WILHELMINA WITH HENRY, DUKE OF MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN.

As required by the constitution of Holland the States-General first gave approval to the betrothal of the young queen. Her marriage with Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, a Prussian officer of the guard, took place on the 7th of February, 1901, in the Great Church at The Hague. The marriage service was performed by the court chaplain according to the ceremonial of the Dutch Reformed Church amidst a distinguished gathering of people. On becoming consort Duke Henry was created a prince, and received the title of Prince Henry of the Netherlands.

limited monarchy. Next year, the powers of Europe, intent on erecting a powerful barrier against French aggression in the north, joined Belgium with Holland to form a unified kingdom of the Netherlands under William I. The arrangement was confirmed by the Congress of Vienna after Napoleon's final downfall at Waterloo.

It was obvious from the beginning that the experiment was unlikely to succeed. Racial and religious differences kept the Dutch and Belgian nations apart, and there was much in the past histories of both peoples that needed forgiveness and forgetfulness to render them acceptable to each other. Moreover, the Dutch displayed little ability in approaching a sufficiently difficult problem. The Belgians enjoyed a marked numerical preponderance, but the Dutch strove to equalize this disadvantage by securing to themselves the larger share in the government and a monopoly of the offices of state. William I. embarked on an ill-advised attempt to make Dutch the official language in Belgium also. The ill-feeling

between the two peoples culminated in the Belgian revolution of 1830, and a year later the Belgians proclaimed their independence and formed a separate kingdom. The Dutch were driven from the citadel of Antwerp by a French army, but it was not until 1839 that Holland officially recognized her new rival as the kingdom of Belgium. Throughout these eight years the chief obstacle in the path of peace was the King, William I. himself, and his dogged obstinacy brought him into collision with a rising Liberal party in the States-General, which was wise enough to see that the Belgian connection could not be maintained by force of arms, and which



Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands was born at The Hague on August 31st, 1880. She is the daughter of the late King, William III., by his second wife, who was Princess Emma of Waldeck-Pyrmont. She married Prince Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin in 1901, and the heir to the throne is Princess Juliana.

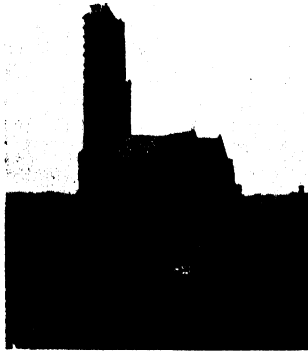
ability, fully alive to the issues and movements of the times, and when the revolutions of 1848 broke out in Europe, he avoided a conflagration in Holland by granting a more liberal constitution, with an extension of the suffrage. The principle of ministerial responsibility was also established. The moving spirit of these reforms was a professor of Leyden named Thorbeke, who formed the first ministry under the new régime, and enjoyed the confidence both of William II. and his successor, William III., who ascended the throne on the sudden death of his father in 1849. The new king had family leanings towards absolutism, but his conduct was never otherwise than constitutionally correct, and after the political crisis of 1868 he loyally acquiesced in the triumph of the democratic Liberals. But though the Conservative party were thus kept out of office for more than twenty years, the Liberals had to deal with the opposition of the strictly Calvinistic, anti-revolutionary party, and of the Catholics, who objected to secular education, a cardinal principle of Liberal policy. Socialism also was rapidly making headway among the lower classes.

desired a further limitation of the royal prerogative. The agitation for reform at first only yielded the meagre result of ensuring that government expenditure should be submitted to the States-General at regular intervals, but even this concession was enough to make the King dissatisfied with his position, and in 1840 he abdicated in favour of his son.

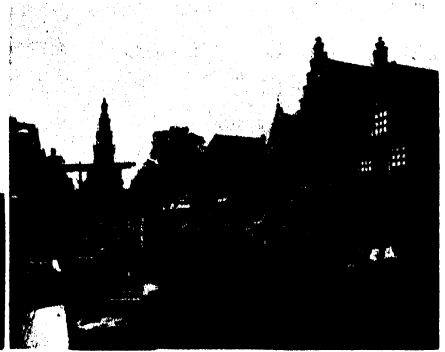
The first task of the new sovereign, William II., was to avert a crisis consequent on the almost bankrupt condition of the national finances. The country had been exhausted by the years of war and a prolonged period of peace was imperative to restore credit. William II. was a man of great natural



The Damrak at Amsterdam. A busy canal in the merchants' quarter.



Utrecht Cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin.

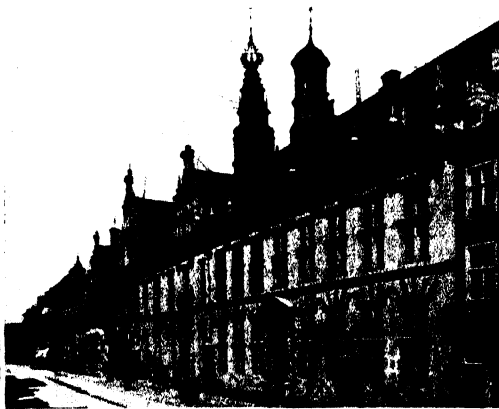


A street in Alkmaar. Famed for its resistance to the Spaniards in 1573.

From 1887 to 1891 a ministry of anti-revolutionaries and Catholics interrupted the long period of Liberal ascendancy. The pre-eminent party question at this moment was the extension of the suffrage and electoral reform, but political passion, which ran high on the subject, was somewhat moderated



St. Nicholas' Abbey, Middelburg. Founded in the twelfth century.



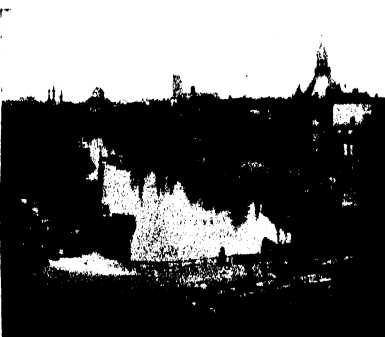
The Town Hall, Leyden. A fine example of a sixteenth-century Dutch building.



The Town Hall, Middelburg. Built by Anton Keldermans, 1512.

by the death of the old King in 1890. He was succeeded by Queen Wilhelmina, a girl of ten, to whom Queen Emma acted as regent for eight years with conspicuous success.

In the elections of 1901 the Liberals, largely owing to internal dissensions, were once more defeated, and a coalition ministry was formed by the eminent anti-revolutionary, Dr. Kuyper. The same year



Rotterdam. A busy quayside of the first commercial port of Holland.



The Knights' Hall, The Hague. Here the States abjured their allegiance to Spain.



The Amsterdam Gate, Haarlem. The only relic of the old city fortifications.



The Buddhist temple Borobudur, in Java, is built against the sides of a hill. It is composed of elaborately sculptured terraces hewn from lava blocks.

was rendered notable by the marriage of the young Queen to Duke Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, a consort who has achieved great and well-deserved popularity among the Dutch. The



This beautiful place is in the highlands of Padang, Sumatra. The small building by the side of the fish-pond is a native Mahomedan prayer-house.

happy union was cemented by the birth of an heiress, the Princess Juliana, in 1909. Dr. Kuyper's

ministry also coincided with a period of strained relations between Holland and England owing to the war of the latter with the Boers of South Africa.

Whatever were the merits of the quarrel between the English and the Boer Republics, it

popular clamour. The Liberals did not recover their lost power until 1905, and then held it for only two years. In these years they displayed socialistic tendencies, which alarmed moderate

was natural and inevitable that the Dutch should sympathize with their fellow-countrymen, and the sympathy was certainly not disguised. The government, however, never permitted itself to deviate from the path of strict neutrality in obedience to



A PROVINCIAL COUNCIL AT BANYUMAS, JAVA.

The natives of the Dutch East Indies take an important part in local government. Banyumas is the seat of a resident, who is seen in council with the natives. The larger territorial divisions are administered by governors, residents, assistant-residents and controllers.

men of all parties and prepared the country for a Conservative reaction, which has kept in power a moderate "Christian" cabinet under the minister Heemskerck.



Rice is one of the most important articles of food in tropical countries, and natives of Padang are seen storing their supplies in the granaries.



A village in the country of Battak, Sumatra. Different tribes vary in language, customs and civilization, but the Battak people are practically savages.

# DATES IN ARABIAN HISTORY

	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
The earliest times to the birth of Mohammed.	B.C.	
	854	Gindibu the Arab mentioned in an inscription of Salmanassar I.
	800-640	Assyrian conquest of North and Central Arabia.
	490	Arabs take part in the expedition of Xerxes.
	400	Attic coins imitated in South Arabia.
	169	Aretas I. head of the Nabataean state.
	24	Arabian expedition of Aelius Gallus.
	A.D.	
	9-39	Aretas IV. head of the Nabataean State.
	106	Establishment of Roman province Arabia.
	201	Expedition of Severus to Arabia Felix.
	275-525	Kings reigned at Marib, known chiefly from inscriptions, beginning with Yasir Yuhannim.
	350	? Introduction of Christianity into Arabia.
	523	Martyrdom of Christians at Negran.
	571	? Birth of Prophet Mohammed.
The Migration to Medinah to the Battle of Tours.	622	Migration to Medinah, <i>the hijrah</i> .
	624	Battle of Badr.
	629	Taking of Meccah.
	632	Death of Prophet Mohammed.
	635	Conquest of Syria and of Persia.
	641	Conquest of Egypt.
	649	Occupation of Cyprus.
	656	Murder of Othman; commencement of civil wars.
	661	Establishment of Umayyad Dynasty.
	670	Foundation of Kairawan in Africa; attack on Constantinople.
	680	Enterprise and death of the Prophet's grandson Husain.
	711	Invasion and conquest of Spain.
	717	Taking of Multan "the gate of India."
	732	Battle of Tours.
The establishment of Abbasid Dynasty to the death of Bukhari.	750	Establishment of Abbasid Dynasty.
	762	Foundation of Baghdad.
	786-809	Reign of Harun al-Kashid, who enters into relations with Charlemagne.
	813	Accession of Mamun; persecutor of the "determinists."
	819	Foundation of Ziyadid dynasty at Zabid in South Arabia.
	861	Murder of Caliph Mutawakkil; Ya'furid dynasty founded at San'a.
	868	Ahmad Ibn Tulun, founder of the Tuluni mosque, commences a semi-independent dynasty in Egypt.
	870	Death of Bukhari, chief collector of Traditions.
Foundation of the Fatimid dynasty in Africa to Tughril Beg's entry into Baghdad.	909	Foundation of the Fatimid dynasty in Africa.
	923	Death of Tabari, eminent historian.
	929	Meccah pillaged by the Carmathians, who remove the <i>Black Stone</i> from the Ka'bah.
	932	Defeat and death of the Caliph Muktaadir; virtual fall of the Caliphate.
	935	Foundation of the Ikshidi dynasty in Egypt.
	945	Entry of Baghdad by Muiz al-daulah, first Buwaihid ruler.
	965	Death of Mutanabbi, chief Arabic poet.
	969	Conquest of Egypt by the Fatimids, who found Cairo.
	1001-1024	Indian campaigns of Mahmud Ghazawi.
	1010	The Fatimid Caliph Hakim destroys the Church of the Holy Sepulchre.
	1021	Foundation of the Najahid dynasty at Zabid.
	1037	Death of Avicenna, philosopher and physician.
		Sulahi dynasty at San'a.
	1055	Entry of Baghdad by Tughril Beg, first Seljuk Sultan.
Commencement of Crusades to the termination of the Crusaders' occupation of Syria.	1096	Commencement of Crusades.
	1098	Hamdanid dynasty at San'a.
	1099	Capture of Jerusalem by Crusaders.
	1159	Mahdid dynasty at Zabid.
	1171	Termination of Fatimid rule in Egypt; commencement of Ayyubids.
	1187	Battle of Hattin leading to recovery of Jerusalem.
	1220	Devastation of Eastern provinces by Chinghiz Khan.
	1229	Rasulid dynasty in Yemen.
	1250	Commencement of Mamluk rule in Egypt.
	1258	Baghdad taken by Hulagu; end of Abbasid Caliphate in the East.
	1260	Defeat of the Mongols by Kotuz at Ain Jalut.
	1270	Last Crusade.
	1291	Termination of the Crusaders' occupation of Syria.
Commencement of Tahirid rule in South Arabia to recovery of San'a by Ottomans.	1446	Commencement of Tahirid rule in South Arabia.
	1517	Mamluke conquest of South Arabia, followed by Ottoman occupation.
	1633	Ottomans driven from South Arabia.
	1760	Rise of Wahhabis, reformers of Islam.
	1803	Meccah taken by Wahhabis.
	1812	Meccah recovered by Ottomans.
	1818	Diraiyyah, Wahhabi capital, taken by Ibrahim Pasha.
	1830	The English occupy Aden.
	1872	San'a recovered by Ottomans.
<i>WESTERN ISLAM.</i>		
Foundation of Umayyad empire in Spain to the seizure of Tripoli by Italy.	756	Umayyad empire founded in Spain by Abd al-Rahman.
	788	Foundation of Idrisi dynasty in Africa.
	800	Foundation of Aghlabite dynasty in Africa.
	831	Conquest of Sicily.
	902	Invasion of Italy by Ibrahim Ibn al-Aghlab.
	909	Fall of the Aghlabites; establishment of Fatimids.
	972	Commencement of Zairid dynasty in Tunis.
	1016	Fall of the Umayyads in Spain. The Idrisid Ali Ibn Hamud proclaimed in Cordova.
	1068	Morocco founded by the Al-moravids.
	1091	Cordova taken by the Al-moravids.
	1147	The Al-mohades take Morocco and become supreme in Africa and Spain.
	1260	Morocco taken by the Merinids; fall of the Al-mohades.
	1492	Termination of Moslem rule in Spain.
	1515	Turkish invasion of Algiers.
	1573	The Turks occupy Tunis.
	1830	The French occupy Algiers.
	1881	Tunisia is made a French protectorate.
	1912	The Italians seize Tripoli.



ARAB LIFE.

The Arab tents, which are extremely light and durable, consist of two compartments. The women's is closed, whilst the men's part opens on the shady side to allow of free access. The tents are of woven camel hair.

## CHAPTER XVIII

*THE ARABS.* By PROFESSOR D. S. MARGOLIOUTH, M.A., D.Litt.

THE peninsula of Arabia, both in ancient and modern times, has been among the least explored portions of the globe. This is largely due to the few facilities which it affords for either external or internal communication. It has no navigable rivers; there are few harbours on its coasts, and a third or more of the vast region which it comprises is desert. Continuous records of its history commence with the **rise** of Islam in the seventh century of our era; for earlier periods we have to trust to casual notices in the literatures of other nations or to inscriptions, which are found in great numbers in South Arabia, but from their nature would be better calculated to illustrate records than to serve as a source of history.

The name *Arab*, whereby its inhabitants call themselves and are called by others, is found in an Assyrian inscription of the ninth century B.C., in which one Gindibu the Arab is a member of a confederacy which defies Shalmanassar II. In the following century it appears in the *Odyssey* in the form *Eremboi*. In the Hebrew Bible it is interpreted either as *denizens of the desert* or as *mixed throng*.

The nature of the country favoured the formation of independent states or communities, many of whose names are preserved, and whose language, so far as it is known from inscriptions, displays considerable variety both of dialect and script. The most important of these states in pre-Christian times appears to have been Saba, whose chiefs had their capital in Marib of Yemen, and for many centuries dominated a large portion of the peninsula. They derived their wealth and power very largely from the trade in incense, which the ancient cults constantly required. A familiar Biblical story makes their queen pay a visit to King Solomon, attracted by the fame of his wisdom and the splendour of his court.

In the eighth and seventh centuries B.C. Arabia was invaded by Assyrian forces, and the greater part of the peninsula, including the realm of Saba, made tributary to the great Eastern power. The heirs of that power seem to have inherited the suzerainty, and in the Greek accounts of the Persian expeditions against Hellas the Arabs figure among the invading forces. The success of Athens in repelling that invasion and the consequent rise of an Athenian empire was not without its effect on Arabia; a quantity of Sabaeen coins found at San'a, the modern capital of Yemen, exhibit the owl, being evidently imitations of the Attic coinage.



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#### A PILGRIMAGE TO MECCA.

The duty of every Mussulman, as proclaimed by Mahomet, was to visit Mecca at least once in a lifetime. A pilgrimage to the birthplace of the Prophet is therefore considered the most sacred ritual observance of the Mahomedan religion. Pilgrimages are made yearly, and there are two principal pilgrim bands—one starting from Cairo, and the other from Mozarib, three days journey from Damascus. The pilgrims of the latter caravan number about 6,000 people, with 10,000 pack animals, and the road is a mere camel track across the desert.





It is not probable that the internal condition of the peninsula was profoundly affected by the Assyrian invasions. The difficulty of communication which has been noticed has secured the inhabitants of Arabia a high degree of independence in times for which we have trustworthy records ; and this is likely to have been the case in ages for which we have not the like. The break-up of the Persian empire by Alexander doubtless, however, led to the recovery of more complete independence by the Arabian potentates, who, at any rate in the south-western regions, attained to a high degree of civilization, and were supposed by the Romans to be possessed of fabulous wealth. They built many fortresses, and one of their irrigation works, the Dam of Marib, became famous in legend.

Light first breaks on Arabia in the Græco-Roman geography, of which the chief monuments are of the first century A.D. Their source of information was mainly the record of the expedition under-



*Painted specially for this work*

THE DAM OF MARIB.

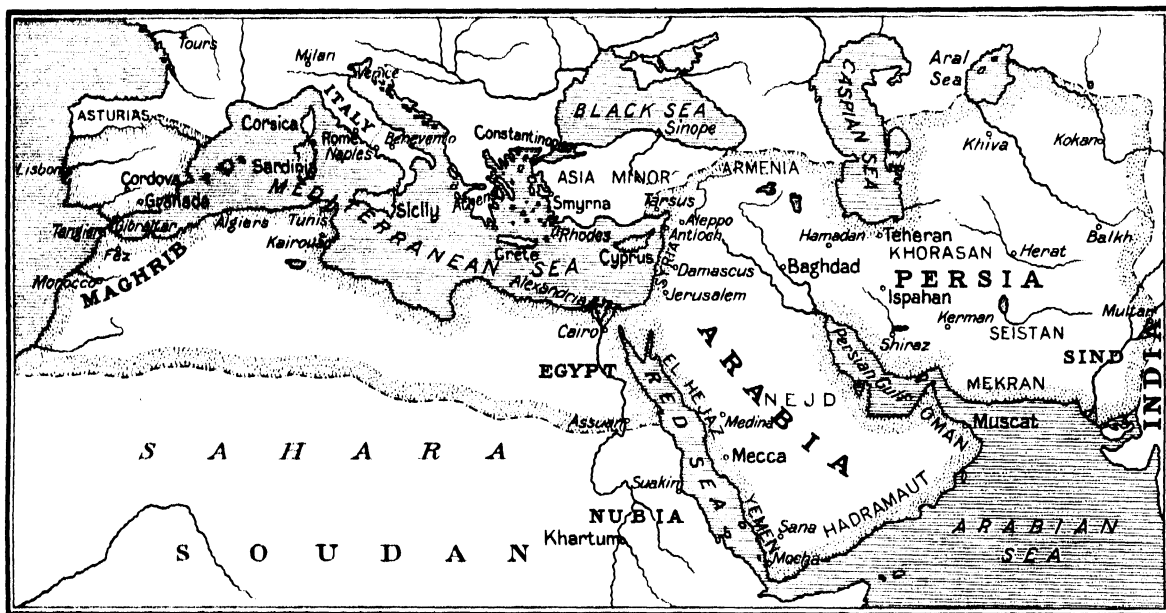
[By H. M. Burton.]

This famous dam with its sluices was the work of the Prince, Itamara Sabai. Marib or Mariaba, the capital of the Sabaeans or people of Yemen, was abandoned by the Yemenite tribes at the bursting of the dam. The great dyke was restored in the fifth and sixth centuries A.D. The ruins recall to mind the restored tanks at Aden.

taken by order of Augustus in the year 24 B.C. for the conquest of South Arabia, the commander being Aelius Gallus. Arabia was at that time supposed to be a land of vast wealth, possessed of a formidable sea-power. The commander commenced by building battleships, which he presently discovered to be useless. He landed his troops at a haven called Leuke Kome, and marched inland, and then southward, doubtless with the view of reaching the Sabaean capital ; the name of the place which he ultimately reached is differently given, but it was " nine days' march from Najran," which is known ; by this time his forces had been reduced to a fraction of their original number by the unforeseen hardships which they had undergone. The relics retraced in sixty days the path which they had taken six months to traverse. The contemporary record of this unfortunate expedition exhibits Arabia somewhat as modern travellers represent it ; the country, so far as it is inhabited, is in the possession of *tribes* ; the invader meets with little organized opposition, and, indeed, brands the Arabs as poor fighters ; but

they are well able to harass the foe, and to utilize his unfamiliarity with the country and its conditions. Some of the names recorded can be identified in inscriptions, and some few are preserved to this day ; but the invaders were unable to obtain any account of the peninsula which could be described as exhaustive or systematic.

For the next six centuries our information is still casual. North Arabia was incorporated in the Roman empire, and when that empire became Christian the new religion spread among the northern tribes, and even obtained representation in the south ; what is more noticeable is that Judaism also obtained a footing, and is supposed for a time to have been supreme in Yemen. If the Moslem authorities are to be believed, these Jewish rulers started a persecution of Christians, who demanded help from their co-religionists in Abyssinia ; this was given, and the Abyssinians founded a dynasty in South Arabia, which in its turn became oppressive, and led to a demand for help from the Persian empire, then under Sassanian rule. A revolt assisted by the Persians brought about the overthrow of the Abyssinian dynasty, and the incorporation of South Arabia as a Persian province.



THE ARAB DOMINIONS.

The Arab conquests spread rapidly during and after the life of Mohammed. Different dynasties were founded which embraced Western Asia, Northern Africa, and Southern Spain. The Moors were expelled from Spain at the end of the fifteenth century.

It would seem that in spite of the official recognition of Judaism and Christianity in parts of Arabia, they had been embraced only by isolated tribes ; the greater number had remained pagan, and their sanctuaries had been left undisturbed. Only vague accounts have reached us of their religions ; they are ordinarily credited with the worship of actual *stones*, and this practice has survived in Islam itself. The archæologists have preserved a few names, and the inscriptions furnish us with some more ; but we know nothing of either their mythology or theology. Certain sanctuaries were of special celebrity, and these were periodically visited. At the dawn of Islam we are told that it was the practice to hold a yearly truce of God for four months, to enable pilgrimage to be made with safety to the temple of Meccah. Islam, though it abolished the truce, retained the pilgrimage, and with it a number of ancient and weird rites to which it assigned new meanings ; the old meanings have been forgotten, though at times they can be plausibly conjectured. This temple may be identical with one known to the Greeks in pre-Islamic times as *Makoraba* ; but this identification is not quite certain, since that word probably means merely *place of worship*, and the older name of Meccah appears to have been *Bakkah*, which may be the Egyptian for *city*. The tradition makes the god of this sanctuary *Allah*, a word which meets us in other Semitic languages besides Arabic for *God*. It is conceivable that this was not a name, but a title, just as *Athene* was called in Athens *the goddess*. One tradition implies that the name of the deity was *Hubal*,



**BREAD MAKING.**

Bedouin women baking cakes of bread on a convex iron pan which is placed over the fire. The red locust when dried is ground to a fine flour, and this is considered more nourishing than barley.



**CHURNING.**

A Bedouin and his wife churning in the shelter of their tent. When the camels' milk is sour it is churned into hard balls, which are afterwards compressed until all moisture is extracted.



*Photographs by]*

**A FALCONER.**

Wealthy Bedouins keep falcons to use with greyhounds for hunting. The hawks are of various kinds, the larger variety being employed for hunting gazelles, and the smaller for birds.



*[The American Colony, Jerusalem.*

**COFFEE DRINKING**

Coffee is roasted immediately before using. It is always prepared by the host. Only half a cup is handed to each guest, as a full cup conveys a hint to depart after it is drunk.



*Painted specially for this work*

*(by H. M. Burton.)*

#### ARABS PLANNING A REVOLT.

About 600 A.D. Christianity began to spread amongst the Arabians, but Judaism is said to have been supreme at Yemen. Persecution by Jewish rulers caused the Southern Arabians to seek help from the Abyssinians, who founded a dynasty. This became so oppressive that the Arabians revolted with the aid of the Persians, and Southern Arabia became in turn a Persian province.

ordinary man, whose career began at *Meccah* and ended at *Medinah*, appears to have gathered from intercourse with Jews and Christians a notion of prophecy somewhat different from that which those communities associate with it, yet in some ways corresponding therewith. A prophet was, he thought, a person employed by the Divine Being as a channel for the communication of commands. Like the modern medium, he regarded himself as a passive recipient of these communications; he had no hand whatever in their composition. They consisted largely in religious dogma, the substitution of absolute monotheism for the polytheism and fetish-worship which had prevailed from time immemorial in Arabia; but, so intimate was the connection of religion with politics, the person who claimed the privilege of delivering these messages thereby also claimed to be dictator of the community, and supersede all other authority. Mohammed seems to have been sufficiently conscious of the import of his claim to see the necessity of secrecy in starting his mission; with great skill he won the adherence of persons on whose ability and loyalty he could count. When persecution arose, he secured a refuge for the feeble among his adherents in the Christian kingdom of Abyssinia, while obtaining protection for himself from

who is also known from North Arabian inscriptions. With this deity others, chiefly it would seem of the female sex, were "associated," receiving, we are told, greater honours. At some time in the sixth century an attempt seems to have been made to suppress this sanctuary, an Abyssinian force having invaded the country for this purpose, bringing with them an elephant. According to the tradition, the expedition was frustrated by a miracle, and the reputation of the sanctuary with its guardians enormously enhanced.

This event is so thickly wrapped in fable that the facts cannot be enucleated. It is probable, however, that the supposed divine intervention in favour of this sanctuary commenced the religious movement which culminated in the establishment of Islam in the following century. Somewhat similarly the miraculous preservation of the Temple of Jerusalem from Sennacherib has been thought to account for the triumph of Jewish monotheism, and so ultimately for the rise of Christianity. The precursors of Mohammed, some few of whom are known to the tradition, appear, however, in the light of Christian inquirers rather than in that of reformers of the national cult.

With the rise of the Prophet Mohammed a new era commenced in the history of the Arabs. This extra-

the head of his clan. The record which we possess of his career in Meccah is vague and untrustworthy, and could only be made clear and intelligible by the discovery of contemporary records, which there is no chance of our ever procuring. It would seem, however, that a singular chance or providence furnished him with an opportunity for compassing his ends. At the city of Yathrib, ever since known as the *Medinah*, or "city" of the prophet, civil war had been raging, into which a Jewish tribe resident there had been forced; and a victory won by their aid was probably attributed to the Jewish Deity. Since Mohammed claimed to be the prophet of this deity, the defeated party were anxious to enlist his aid; he received and accepted an invitation to Medinah, but on condition of being entrusted with dictatorial power. His migration to this place, whither he first dispatched his followers, was not accomplished, we are told, without an attempt on his life on the part of his Meccan enemies; but the flight was successfully accomplished, and the year wherein it took place is the era of *Islam*, the name given by him to his system.

Once established as a sovereign, Mohammed endeavoured to unite the various elements in his city, including the Jews; these, however, he presently found it impossible to conciliate, and therefore determined to destroy. His next care was to train and discipline an army, to be directed in the first place against Meccah; and after a series of struggles he succeeded in taking this place in the year 8, and the subjection of all Arabia followed speedily. When he died, in the year 11, he was succeeded by his most constant companion and adviser, Abu Bakr, whose first duty was to quell risings in the peninsula, while planning conquests outside Arabia. After a reign of less than two years he left the sovereignty to the Prophet's other faithful friend, the energetic Omar, whose forces overran, and indeed permanently subjected, Syria, Egypt and Persia. The general principle of the Prophet had been that all mankind should be summoned to accept Islam; in case of rejection, pagans were to be exterminated, but Jews and Christians were to be allowed the alternative of paying tribute, and to these communities that of the Mazdians was added. Since in theory converts were placed on equal terms with the conquerors, the temptation to join the Moslem community was very great, and the numbers of that community began to swell at an astounding rate.

No eastern nation seems ever to have developed any political



*Painted specially for this work*

*[By Stanley L. Wood.]*

## CRUSADERS STORMING THE CITY OF TYRE.

The siege of Tyre was commenced in February, 1124. The inhabitants, who were rich and prosperous, maintained their ancient reputation for commerce rather than warfare, and the garrison was drawn from Egyptians and Damascenes. The city surrendered on June 25th, after a siege of more than four months, and its capture marked the zenith of the Crusaders' power.

system except absolute despotism, and this has a tendency to be hereditary. The Prophet, in spite of his numerous marriages, left no son, but only one daughter, Fatimah, married to his cousin, Ali, a valiant warrior, but politically incompetent. If his adherents are to be believed, at the death of the Prophet he was deprived of the succession by some discreditable intrigues, and this proceeding had some remarkable effects on the future history of Islam.

On the one hand, the Prophet's immediate successors were men thoroughly familiar with his plans, scarcely less competent and scarcely less trusted than himself. It was doubtless owing to their control of affairs that Islam did not, like many similar movements, collapse with the founder's death. On the other hand, an elective despotism is not a form of government which is capable of permanence, and the Prophet had left his followers no guidance for the choice of a sovereign. When his second successor was assassinated, one of his earliest followers was acclaimed sovereign, though a man of no

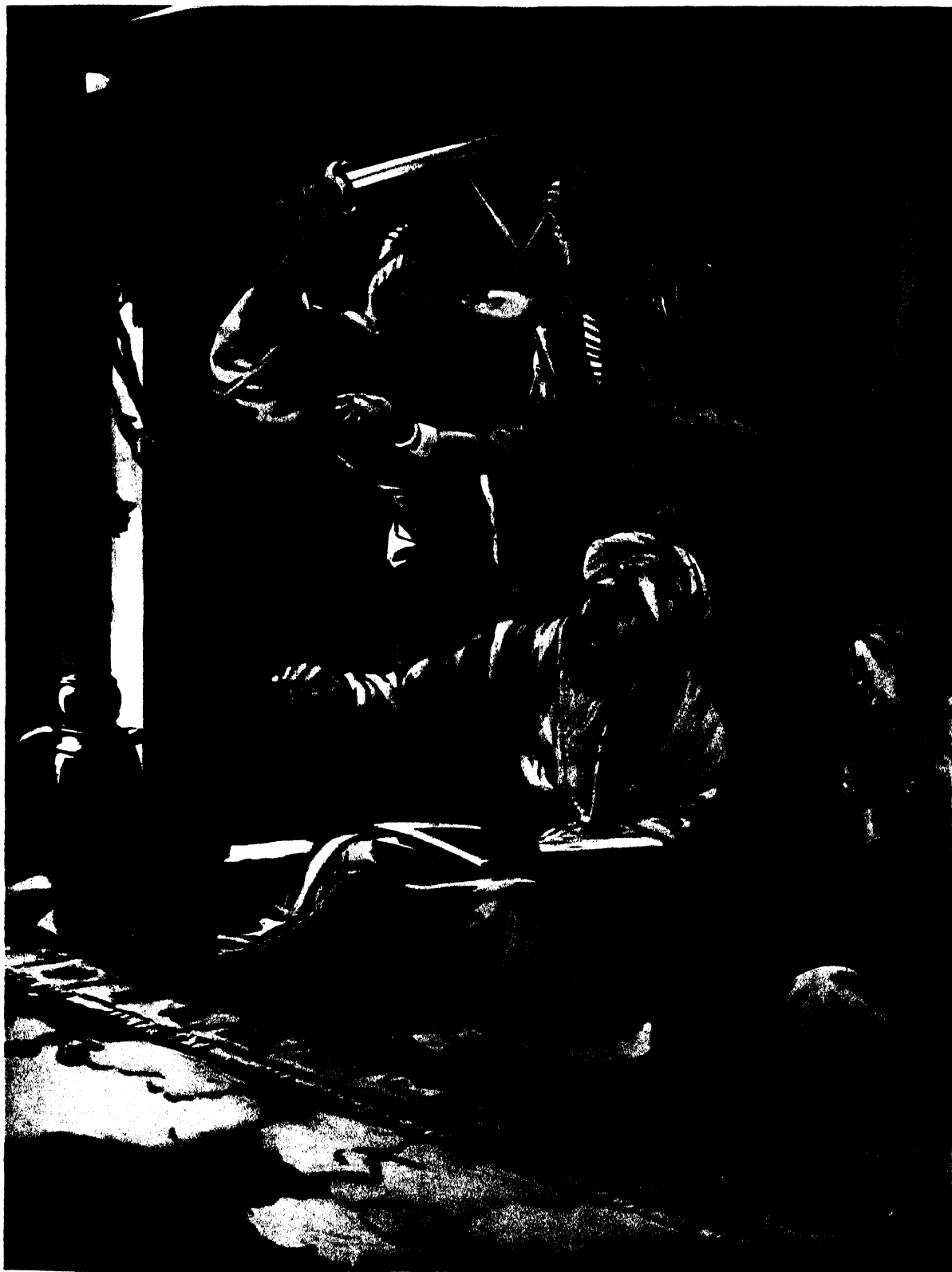


وَقَطَعَ جَمِيعَ عُلَمَاءِ قُصَاوَا الْإِسْلَامِ مِنْ بِلَادِكُمْ فَضَالَ الْبَنِيُّ عَلَيْهِ السَّلَامُ إِنْ لَا أَبْذَلَكُمْ الْآنَ مَطْلُوكُمْ وَطَبَسَكُمْ لَكِنْ إِنْ خَرَجْتُمْ مِنْ جُورِ الْإِسْلَامِ وَمَنْ كُنْ أَمَوَاكُمْ وَسَلَّاحَكُمْ وَتَرْكُوا كَانُوا غُرَبَاءُ يَوْمَئِذٍ بَانَدَهُمْ وَيَأْتِي الْمَوْتِينَ كَانَتْ مَاءَ عَاسَةِ نَهْمُكُمْ عَنْ سَهْمَا نَاصِدِهِمْ عَنْ حَوْلِ الْمَدِينَةِ وَكَانَ مَسْجِدُ الْفَرَّاجِ مُحَمَّدٍ سَلَمَةً فَصَوَّوْا بَوْلَادَهُمْ وَنَسَبَهُمْ سَمَاءَ جَمِيلٍ لَعَلَّ الْخَيْبَرَ لَا كَانَ فِيهِ

By permission of] MOHAMMED. [The Royal Asiatic Society.

Born A.D. 570 of poor but distinguished parents of the Koreish tribe. Mohammed in his youth herded sheep. When forty years of age an angel appeared to him in a vision saying, "Oh! Mohammed, of a verity thou art the Prophet of God and I am His Angel Gabriel!" He is said to have died by poison in 632.

great competence, but distinguished as having married successively two of the Prophet's daughters. The assassin was a private individual, and no political importance was attached to the murder. The third successor was murdered by an organized party, who besieged him in his capital Medinah, and after killing the sovereign, plundered the treasury. Ali, whose wife had long been dead, committed the grave error of accepting the sovereignty from these assassins, whom therefore he could neither acknowledge nor disown. The able governor of Syria, who was of kin to the murdered sovereign, discovered a text in the Koran which not only gave the kinsman the right to avenge the dead, but, in general, "gave him authority," which he interpreted as *authority over the whole community*; he therefore, aided by Ali's many enemies, defied the new sovereign, who found himself at the start involved in civil war. An almost immediate result was the transference of the political centre of Islam from Arabia. The governor of Syria, Mu'awiyah, relied on the Moslems of Syria, whereas Ali found supporters in Mesopotamia. After the first campaign Ali consented to submit his claims to arbitration, and though he apparently declined to abide by the award, he thereby gave offence to his original supporters, by one



*Painted specially for this work*

*[By H. M. Burton.]*

#### THE MURDER OF THE THIRD SUCCESSOR OF MOHAMMED.

In considering the question of their government the Arabs recognized no compromise between entire liberty and autocratic rule. Under the successors of Mohammed the Caliphate took shape as an absolute monarchy, and it was assumed by all that the Caliphs would strictly adhere to the religious laws laid down by the Prophet. But the growing worldliness of Islam under the rule of the profligate Othman brought about his assassination in 656 by Mohammed, son of Abu Bakr. Othman was the son-in-law of Mohammed.





*By permission of*

#### A READING FROM THE KORAN.

*[The D. E. C. Ltd., London.]*

The Koran, the sacred book of Mohammedans, was written about 610 A.D. by Mohammed, who declared it had been revealed to him by the Angel Gabriel. Its aim was to unite all creeds in the worship of one God. "There is only one God, and Mohammed is His Prophet." The book consists of 6,000 verses divided into 114 sections.

of Islam lapped India and even China. While their armies were thus achieving great successes abroad, the Umayyad princes were suffering from constant risings nearer home.

When the hereditary principle had once been established, it seemed evident to many that the heir to the throne should be a member of the founder's family; and though his elder grandson sold his claims to the first of the Umayyad sovereigns, the younger brother headed a revolt after that sovereign's death, and owing to the too energetic measures of the governor charged to quell this rebellion, lost his life. The slaughter of a grandson of the Prophet by professed followers of the Prophet shocked the Moslem world beyond endurance; nor is the outrage forgotten to this day. Although the Umayyad Abd al-Malik was able to restore order for a time, risings headed by members of the Prophet's family continued; and others were led by persons who disapproved of the hereditary system altogether, and wished a return to the older elective method. But even those who believed in the hereditary principle were divided: some supposing that inheritance should go in the female line, and so recognizing the claims of descendants of the Prophet's daughter and her husband Ali; whereas others held that failing a son the inheritance reverted to the grandfather's representative, who was in this case determined by the maxim that there was no inheritance between persons of different religions. The Prophet, according to the records, had one believing uncle, Abbas, who had heirs, one of whom, according to this view, was the Prophet's legal successor. Since there was an accepted tradition that

of whom he was presently assassinated. His rival, Mu'awiyah, was then supreme in the Islamic world, of which he made Damascus the capital. He proved himself a ruler of extraordinary competence, and with his death and the succession of his son the hereditary principle became definitely established in the Islamic monarchy. It was not, however, forgotten that he was the son of Mohammed's most persistent opponent, and there was an obvious incongruity about this family inheriting Mohammed's throne.

The Umayyads, as this dynasty is called, after a supposed ancestor Umayyah, furnished Islam with sovereigns for close on a century, during which the tide of Islamic conquest continued with few checks. From Egypt it spread westward, engulfing all North Africa, whence it spread to Spain, thence threatening the rest of southern Europe; just as the Umayyad dynasty was nearing its close, this advance was stopped by the victory of Charles Martel at Tours. Eastwards the wave

Ali's father, who was also an uncle of the Prophet, in spite of his having brought up and protected the latter, had died unbelieving. Ali could not inherit on this principle ; yet there were those who were prepared to recognize the claims of Ali's descendants by other wives than the Prophet's daughter. On the whole, the province of Persia, where Ali had established a metropolis of Islam, favoured his descendants, and in that country a sort of cult of Ali arose, at times going to the extent of actually deifying him, and setting him above the Prophet. These various factions seem to have worked together for the overthrow of the Umayyads ; and in the first third of the second century of Islam they were organized by a man of genius, Abu Muslim of Khorasan, who defeated the Umayyad sovereign, and set up a descendant of Abbas in his place. Apparently it was at first intended that the descendants of the uncle and the daughter of the Prophet should occupy the throne by turns. The arrangement, however, as was natural, fell through, and the descendants of the Prophet were as fiercely persecuted under the second dynasty as under the first.

The Abbasids speedily saw the wisdom of transferring the seat of government from Syria to a new metropolis on the Tigris, which was built by the second Abbasid, Mansur, who called it *The City of Peace*, but more ordinarily was known by an older local name, *Baghdad*. For over five hundred years the Abbasid dynasty reigned over, or ruled, the Islamic world from Baghdad, during that period also the headquarters of the learning, which now began to thrive with something like tropical exuberance. Whereas during the first century of Islam literary effort had been confined to ballad-poetry, the foundation of Baghdad either led to, or coincided with, the rise of a very varied literature, which the introduction of paper from the Far East greatly encouraged. The earliest literary enterprises consisted in the collection of legal precedents out of the Prophet's life, and the arrangement of these in categories. Meanwhile the world of Islam had somehow learned the high value of the ancient Greek science and philosophy. Translations of these, not ordinarily directly from the Greek, but from intermediate Syriac versions,



From the painting]

[By C. F. Leasing.

## CRUSADERS IN PALESTINE.

The artist seems to have had in remembrance the strongly romantic side of the Crusades. Beside the Jordan Crusaders are seen drinking from scallop-shells beneath a torrid sun. In the foreground sits a figure cloaked as a pilgrim, with the pilgrim's scallop-shell and bottle typifying a pilgrimage in a barren land, being symbolic of the feeling of renunciation entertained by the true Crusader towards life.

were organized by early sovereigns of the Abbasid dynasty, and the Arabs began to speculate on these subjects themselves. Under the influence of the Aristotelian logic and metaphysics a dogmatic theology arose, the result of lengthy controversy, wherein not a little free-thought had been involved. The works of Avicenna (Ibn Sina), 980-1037, finally formed a classical exposition in Arabic of Greek philosophy, mathematics and medicine; translated into Latin, his treatise on the last of these subjects, called the "Canon Medicinæ," was highly appreciated in Europe. Meanwhile the introduction of what we call the Arabic numerals from India, with the principle of local value, had facilitated mathematical inquiry, and invention went on rapidly; the importance assigned to astrology caused sovereigns to found observatories and endow the study. The works of Alberuni, a contemporary of Avicenna, exhibit extraordinary keenness, not only in these subjects, but in geographical and archaeological research. Yet probably the authors of whom the Arabs should be proudest are their historians, who for the whole of this period have left copious and trustworthy chronicles.

In the matter of art the Moslems were greatly hampered by their religion,

the same, but is actually employed for the mosque-tower whence criers utter the call to prayer. The characteristic of the "Arab" style is complexity produced by geometrical involutions, sometimes distinct, sometimes mixed. An ornament greatly favoured in the Egyptian mosque is the *stalactite*, which has been shown to be a complicated geometrical figure rather than a form of sculpture. In lieu of decoration by figures of animals, etc., ornamental writing was developed to a degree probably unknown to other systems, the matter written being either texts of the sacred volume or names of Islamic heroes.

During the Abbasid period both the office of *Caliph* (successor to the Prophet) and the empire itself underwent numerous vicissitudes. The deposed Umayyads found a refuge in Spain, where they ultimately established a rival Caliphate, and this province was permanently detached from the Eastern



[Photograph by]

#### A TYPICAL ARAB

[The American Colony, Jerusalem.]

The Arab, who claims descent from Ishmael, is of medium height, slow and graceful in his movements, and dignified in bearing. His features are aquiline, his hair and eyes black, and his complexion varying shades of brown. There is no race more hospitable.

which forbade the plastic and discouraged the pictorial arts. There was nothing, however, to prevent their developing the taste for architecture, and great buildings began to arise, the Umayyad Caliph Walid I. (705-715) being the first to indulge this taste on a considerable scale. Moslem architecture developed somewhat differently in the various provinces; some fairly early monuments of it remain in Egypt, where the *Pharos*, or light-house, is thought to have suggested the design of the *Minaret*, which literally means



*Painted especially for this work*

#### CRUSADERS STORMING NICAEA.

*[By Stanley L. Wood.]*

In May, 1097, the Crusaders crossed the Bosphorus and entered the dominions of Kiliç Arslan, Sultan of Iconium. Nicaea, a Seljukian garrison town, was first besieged, and the defenders offered a stubborn resistance. With the aid of the Emperor Alexius I. and after a siege of about a month's duration, the Crusaders captured the town, which was immediately taken possession of by Alexius, who rewarded the Crusader princes, though at the same time causing considerable discontent by his action.



*Photo by Gen. Bertram Milford.]*

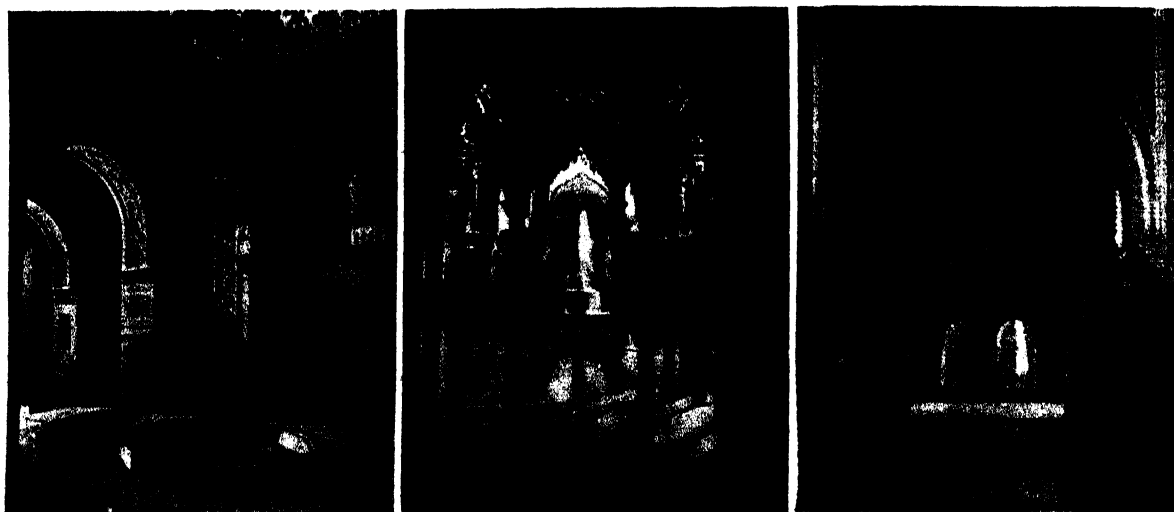
*[From "The Wonders of the World,"*

#### THE ALHAMBRA, GRANADA.

The exterior of the Alhambra belies the interior: it is severe, forbidding-looking and massive. It is nevertheless the masterpiece of Arab architecture.

empire. With Spain went North Africa, where, as will be seen, various dynasties arose; but Egypt was not permanently detached from the Caliphate of Baghdad until the last third of the fourth century of Islam, when a dynasty, professedly descended from the Prophet's daughter, which had been founded by sectarian adventurers in North Africa, succeeded in wresting that country from the Eastern empire, and established a rival Caliphate with the new city Cairo for metropolis. This power contested with the eastern Caliphate the possession of Syria and Arabia, and for a very brief period obtained a footing in Baghdad itself. It was finally overthrown by Saladin, and its possessions reincorporated in the Caliphate of Baghdad, which was then nearing its fall.

A Moslem political philosopher endeavoured to find a mathematical law regulating the duration of dynasties, and arrived at the conclusion that they lasted one hundred and twenty years, or three generations. It is not easy to harmonize the facts with these exact figures, but in the main Ibn Khaldun's calculation is accurate. The dynasties were all founded by talented adventurers, who could not bequeath their talents to their successors. The Caliphate of Baghdad lasted nominally for over five centuries, but the power of the Caliph began to decline after the first century, and for the greater part of the time he was nominal rather than real sovereign. His office had indeed very little analogy with the Papacy, to which it has been compared; it was very much more like that of a limited monarch whose function it is to lend his authority to acts for which he is not himself responsible. Only under the Caliphate there was always an absolute monarch, whether holding the title Caliph or some other. The most famous of



*Photos by]*

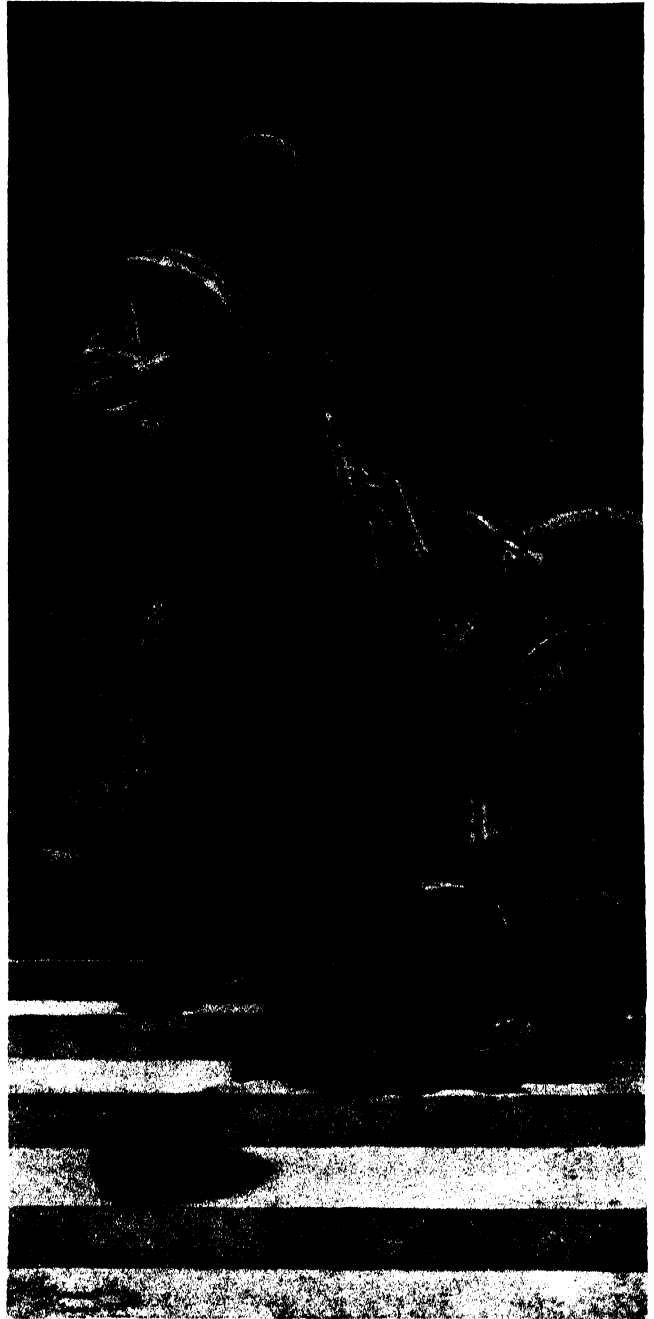
#### THE INTERIOR OF THE ALHAMBRA.

*[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.*

The Alhambra was built between 1248 and 1354, and the beautiful interior decorations are attributed to Yusef I. Examples of exquisite taste and patient ingenuity were disfigured by successive alterations soon after the expulsion of the Moors in 1492, but the palace still is surprisingly beautiful as an example of Moorish art. From the left the views are the Hall of the Two Sisters, the Court of Lions, and the Mirador De Lindaraja.

these Caliphs is doubtless Harun al-Rashid (786–809), who entered into diplomatic relations with Charlemagne ; the court of Baghdad in his day reached its zenith of wealth and splendour. He attempted to divide his empire at his death between two sons ; the usual dissensions arose, in the course of which Baghdad was taken by the more competent younger son. He was compelled, however, to reward the general who had won him the victory by the gift of a semi-independent principality ; and the empire presently split up owing to the recognition by the sovereign of dynasties which arose in the various provinces, whose heads paid tribute to the authority in Baghdad, but otherwise ruled as independent monarchs. On the other hand, experience showed the Caliphs the need for a foreign bodyguard, and for this purpose troops drawn from Turkestan proved the most efficient. We possess an elaborate panegyric on the Turkish soldier dating from the first half of the third Islamic century. The captains of this guard speedily learned that they possessed a power enabling them to hold the Caliph himself in subjection ; and as early as 861 one of them put the Caliph Mutawakkil to death and installed his son, the parricide Muntasir. The power of appointing and deposing the Caliph thus fell into their hands ; and since the greed of this soldiery knew no bounds, extortion of various sorts had to be employed in order to gratify it. The vizier, who was also chancellor of the exchequer, was perpetually changed, the ambitious holding out hopes of furnishing larger and larger sums, owing to the employment of that most wasteful of all forms of finance, farming the revenue. Since the injury ultimately fell on the cultivators, there was everywhere much discontent, and as warfare was still conducted with primitive weapons, men with a talent for organization easily got together bodies of troops with which they could bid the authorities defiance.

The event which led to the collapse of the Caliphs' power was a dispute between the Caliph Muktaḍir and his general Mu'nis, who led his troops against those of the Caliph and defeated them ; during the operations the Caliph was killed. Though the substitute appointed by the victorious general found the means to arrest and execute the latter, the Caliphate never recovered from the shock ; and in 945 an adventurer of the Buwaihid family installed himself in Baghdad with the title *prince of princes*, exercising monarchical power, which



In Moslem countries the sovereign has absolute control over the lives and possessions of his subjects. Writers of romance represent the Sultans as having always in readiness a mat and an executioner, the former serving the purpose of the block. The most ordinary form of punishment used to be decapitation, which the illustration represents.

he professed to derive from the Caliph. The conqueror's family presently established themselves in various provinces of the eastern portion of the empire, and were soon involved in internecine struggles. Meanwhile, in the further East another semi-independent state was partly carved out of the territory of the Caliphs, partly created by conquest of Afghanistan and India.

Mesopotamia. This movement, fraught with great consequences to Europe, both for good and evil, but destined to have little permanent effect on the East, was brought about by the sufferings of the Oriental Christians, and still more by the difficulties placed in the way of pilgrims, which culminated during the rule of Hakim, Fatimid Caliph of Egypt (996-1020), sometimes called the Caligula of the East, who issued a general order for the destruction of churches, but scarcely diminished when Palestine passed into Seljuk hands. Peter the Hermit, who had made the pilgrimage in 1094, was authorized by Pope Urban II. to preach a crusade throughout Latin Europe; and the co-operation of the Byzantine emperor was obtained. For a period of nearly two hundred years expeditions were made, wherein kings (such as our Richard I.) took part, followed by nobles, religious fanatics and common adventurers, aiming at the recovery to Christendom in the first place of the Holy Land, but also of the

other countries which had been wrested from it by Islam. The last Crusader was Prince Edward of England, son of Henry III., who started in 1272 and returned in 1274. Jerusalem itself was taken in 1099, and held by Christian princes till 1187, when it was retaken by Saladin, a Kurdish chief, who re-established the power of the Caliphs of Baghdad in Egypt.

In the fifth century of Islam the Buwaihids were displaced by Turkish adventurers, called the Seljuks, one of whom entered Baghdad in 1055, where he received the title Sultan. Various princes of this family were established throughout the empire, which in their time began to suffer seriously from the Crusaders, who for a time wrested from the Moslems Syria and the adjoining



[Photom by]

[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.]

## CORDOVA CATHEDRAL.

The mosque of Cordova, now a cathedral, was founded by Abd al-Rahman I. (756-788). It was the largest sacred building of Islam in existence after the Kaaba at Mecca.



[Photom by]

## A DOORWAY IN CORDOVA CATHEDRAL.

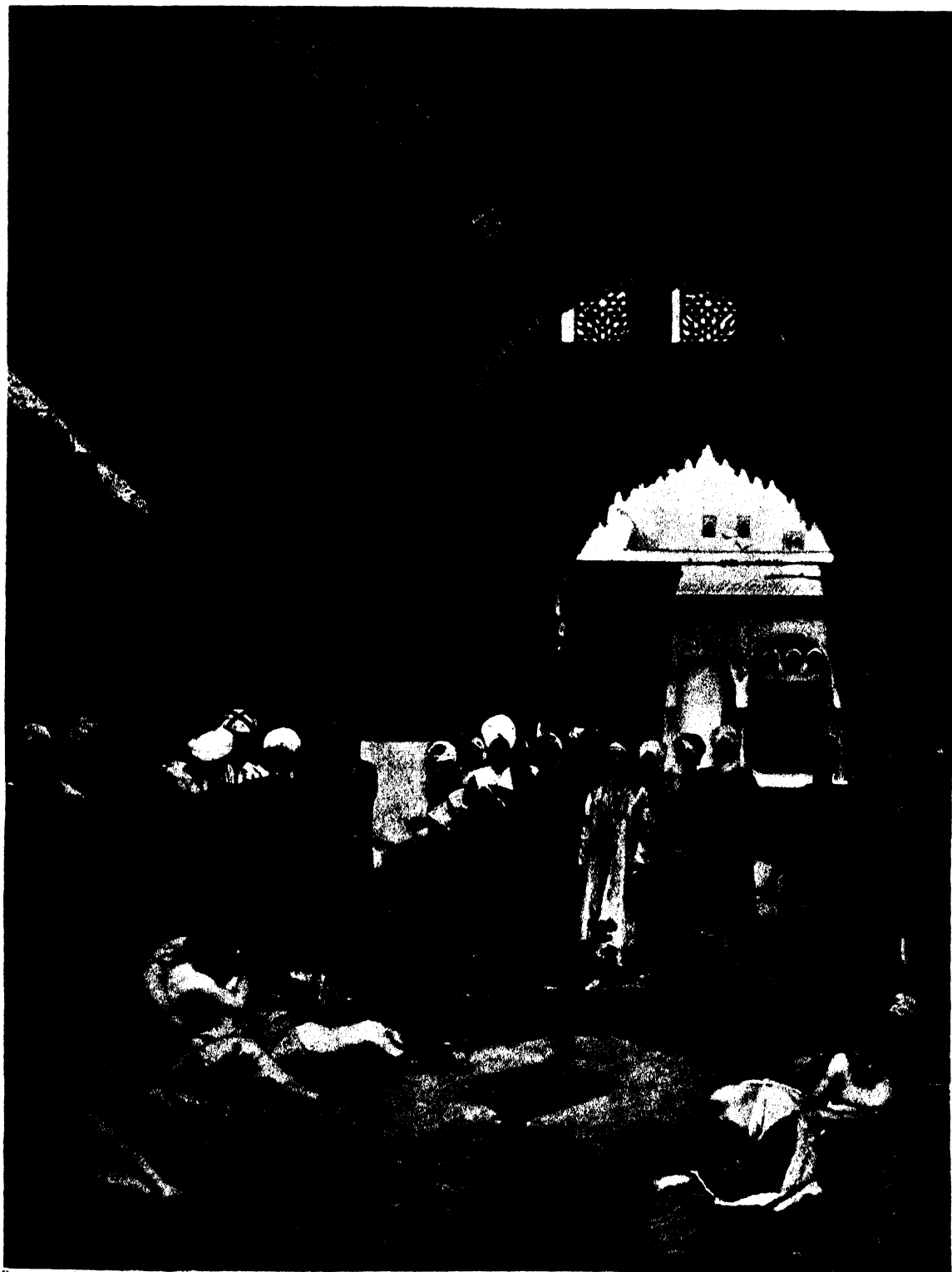
This beautiful decorated arch of one of the shrines in the "mezquita" is the most perfect example of the Byzantine mosaic-worker's art in transparent mosaic.



[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.]

## THE MIHRAB, CORDOVA CATHEDRAL.

The small tenth-century chapel, which was formerly the second prayer-shrine or Mihrab, is roofed with white marble and beautifully decorated with Byzantine mosaic.



*From the painting]*

*[By Benjamin Constant.*

#### THE DAY AFTER A VICTORY AT THE ALHAMBRA.

This painting by Benjamin Constant of the beautiful palace of the Alhambra at Granada in Spain depicts the triumphant return of Abu-Abdillah with his Christian captives. This most beautiful palace and fortress was founded by Mohammed I., about 1253, and Mohammed III., surnamed Abu-Abdillah, completed the building and added a splendid mosque ornamented with exquisite mosaic work and marble. The fortress fell into the hands of the Spaniards in 1491-92, and with its fall there vanished the last remnant of the power of Islam in Spain.



In 1229 the Holy City was once more in the power of Christians, but in 1246 they were again driven out. The Mamluke Sultans, who succeeded the dynasty founded by Saladin in Egypt, made it their business to oust the Christian invaders from Moslem territory, and the capture of Acre in 1291 by one of these Sultans marked the close of this episode in the history of Europe and Asia.

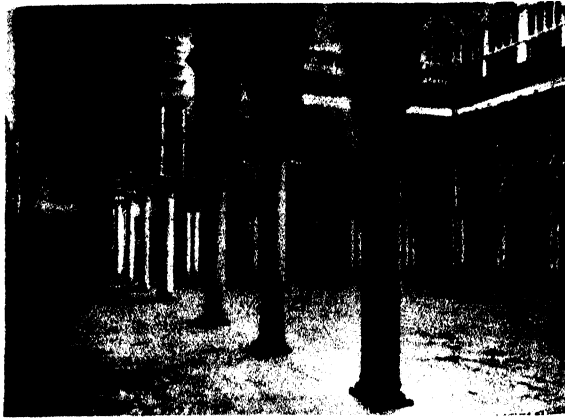
rulers in the peninsula. The first of these was the Umayyad Abd al-Rahman III., who at his accession in 912 found it in a state approaching anarchy. The most serious difficulty with which he had to deal was a revolt among the Islamized native population led by one Omar Ibn Hafson, an adventurer who conceived the idea of reclaiming Spain for the Spaniards. After some successes, he abandoned Islam, but was not followed in this step by all his associates; the loss of these allies was, however, for a time compensated by assistance from disaffected Moslems, who incurred some odium by aiding a renegade.

His cause prospered under the incapable ruler who preceded Abd al-Rahman; the latter succeeded in taking his fortresses successively, and when Ibn Hafson died, his dominion was little more than a

single fortress, which was successively defended by his sons until 927, when the last of them capitulated; these apostates from Islam were compelled to return to the system which they had abandoned, though some, among them the daughter of Ibn Hafson, preferred martyrdom. Abd al-Rahman, however, distinguished himself throughout his reign by good faith and gentle-

Towards the end of the sixth Islamic century a formidable enemy arose in the Mongols, who, under Ghengiz Khan, desolated the Eastern provinces of the empire in 1220 A.D., and put an end to the Caliphate of Baghdad in 1258.

The period of the greatest prosperity enjoyed by Moslem Spain was the tenth century of our era, which produced some remarkable



[Photo by]

[The Photochrom Co., Ltd.]

#### THE ALCAZAR, SEVILLE.

Though less pure in style than the Courtyard of the Maidens, that of the Dolls boasts of a running frieze of a new design, differing from the usual stalactite motive.



[Photos by]

#### THE ALCAZAR, SEVILLE.

The beautiful Hall of the Ambassadors which was the throne-room of Peter the Cruel. Here, too, Charles V., the most powerful of all Spanish monarchs, was married.



[The Photochrom Co., Ltd.]

#### THE ALCAZAR, SEVILLE.

Another view of the Hall of Ambassadors. The Alcazar or Moorish royal palace was begun at the end of the twelfth century. It is only surpassed by the Alhambra.



*From the painting*

#### THE CAPTURE OF ABD-EL-KADER.

Abd-el-Kader, Amir of Mascara, was born in 1807 or 1808. He was a great opponent of the French occupation of Algeria, and came forward as the champion of Islam. After a vigorous struggle for fifteen years, this great soldier and born leader of men was forced to surrender to General Lamoricière, on the 21st December, 1847. Having embarked with his family and suite at Oran, he was conveyed a prisoner to France, where he remained until released in 1852.

*[By H. Vernet.]*

ness towards those whom he aimed at subduing, and by a series of successful campaigns reduced the various chieftains who maintained independent states within the peninsula; and the taking of Toledo in 932 rendered him complete master of it. Before his death in 961 he had the satisfaction of receiving a visit from the Queen of Navarre at his capital Cordova, to implore help against Christian enemies. The agent who had arranged this visit was a Jewish minister, who also employed in diplomacy his skill as a physician.

Following the example of the Fatimid chief, Abd al-Rahman took titles similar to those held by the sovereign of Baghdad, whom he also imitated in the adoption of a foreign bodyguard consisting chiefly of Europeans, called by the Arabs generally "Sclavs," or "slaves." Here, too, the institution was destined to injure the throne which it had been intended to maintain. Abd al-Rahman III.'s successor, Hakam II., had the merit of starting the literary and scientific movement which brought Spain into the forefront of Moslem learning, and reacted on Western Europe. He founded a vast library, which in his successor's time was weeded of all books suspected of unorthodox tendencies.



*From the painting]*

*[By Benjamin Constant.*

#### THE LAST REBELS.

The scene is in front of the gates of Morocco after the suppression of a rising. The Sultan, in company with his suite, is seen reviewing the spectacle of executed rebel chiefs. It is typical in the history of the autocratic rule of the Sultans of Morocco, and Ima'il (1672-1727), brother of Mohammed XIV., the founder of the Filali dynasty, was perhaps the most tyrannous of all.

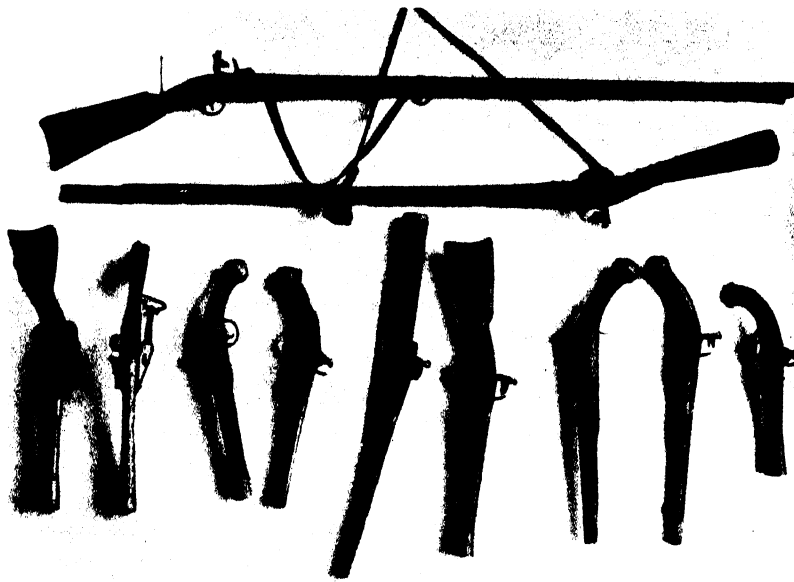
Hakam II.'s successor was an infant, whose authority was wielded by ministers, of whom one, Ibn 'Abi Amir, succeeded in usurping all power, which, however, he exercised with great ability. The career of this personage, who is said to have risen from a humble post by the exhibition of singular dexterity, aided by court favour, is of extraordinary interest. He is said to have commanded in fifty-two campaigns and never to have sustained a defeat. Shortly after his death in 1002 the peninsula was again plunged in internal and external troubles.

The conquest of Spain was achieved before the end of the first Islamic century, and the country was at first ruled from the capital of the empire, which was then Damascus. With the fall of the Umayyads in the East, it speedily detached itself from the Caliphate, and for some centuries was ruled by a branch of the Umayyad family. Its fortunes were closely bound up with those of North African Islam, which by the beginning of the ninth century of our era had broken loose from Eastern control. The territory was divided between independent chiefs, but the whole population was easily amenable to revivalist influence, and empires, based on such propaganda, were founded by the Fatimids, who afterwards conquered Egypt, the Almoravids, properly *murabitun*, "devotees," by whom Morocco was built in 1068, and Almohads, properly *muwahhidun*, "monotheists"; these latter empires were also supreme



**DROPPING PAMPHLETS ON THE ARABS DURING THE ITALO-TURKISH WAR, 1911-1912.**

Apart from the great advantage of aeroplanes for scouting purposes, the Italians made use of them to fly over the Turkish lines and circularize war news adverse to the Turks amongst the Arab population of Tripoli. An Italian airman is seen dropping pamphlets printed in Arabic relating to the war, which also announce the bombardment of Beirut by the Italians.



[Photograph by]

#### FIREARMS USED BY ARABS.

The muskets and pistols of the Arabs are often of beautiful work, both barrels and stocks being inlaid with silver. But much profit is made by traders dealing in old European weapons with the natives.

Medinah; but though their possession has nominally meant the control of Arabia, the latter has rarely been effective.

In the province Oman, on the south-east, the *Kharijites*, the remains of the party who were responsible for the first civil war, found a refuge, where they have to this day maintained themselves apart from the main body of Islam; and in the south-west province Yemen, the *Arabia felix* of the ancients, a sect called the *Zaidites* have at times been able to maintain an independent kingdom; they were ruled by their own sovereigns from 893-1300, and again from 1630-1872. The pacification of this region has in our time cost the Turks a vast amount of blood and treasure. In Central Arabia a sect called *Wahhables* arose in the latter half of the eighteenth century, and by 1807 they were supreme in the peninsula. The recovery of the country to the Ottoman empire was undertaken by Muhammad Ali, founder of the Khedivial dynasty in Egypt, whose son Ibrahim Pasha stormed the metropolis of the sect, Diraiyah, in 1818. Though the sacred cities remained in Ottoman possession at the close of the campaign, the sect was not exterminated, and is still represented by two independent principalities.

in Spain, whence the Almohads were driven in 1235 after the battle of Las Navas. In 1492 Ferdinand and Isabella put an end to Moslem rule in the peninsula.

After the fall of Baghdad the political centre of Islam shifted to Cairo, where for about two hundred and fifty years a shadowy Caliphate was maintained. From Cairo it shifted to Constantinople, which, in 1453, became the capital of the Ottoman Sultans, who, owing to various circumstances, had inherited the Islamic empire of the East. Supremacy in that empire could not be complete without the possession of the sacred cities, Meccah and



[Photograph by]

#### ARAB WEAPONS.

The Arabs encase their leather belts in cloth or velvet, worked with gold thread embroidery. The curved dagger has a broad steel blade with strong central rib, a horn handle, and a curved sheath of horn.

[The American Colony, Jerusalem.]

# DATES OF AUSTRIAN HISTORY

DYNASTY.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
From the Roman period to the Dynasty of Babenberg.	B.C.	Istria becomes a Roman province.
	179	Illyria and Dalmatia conquered by the Romans.
	120	Noricum and Pannonia incorporated with the Roman Empire. Vindobona, the present Vienna, founded.
	14	
	A.D.	
	500	Slavonic tribes settle in the southern provinces.
	750	Prague is founded.
	701	Charlemagne starts his expedition against the Avars.
	796	Charlemagne erects between the rivers Enns and Raab the East Mark, as a defence of his empire. This mark is the nucleus around which the present empire of Austria has been built.
	910	The mark is destroyed by the Magyars.
	955	The mark is re-established by the Emperor Otto I.
The Rulers of the House of Babenberg.	976	The emperor entrusts the government of this mark to Leopold of Babenberg.
	1156	Austria, which had extended east to the rivers Leitha and March, is raised by the Emperor Frederick I. to the rank of a duchy. Its territory also enlarged by the district between the Enns and the Inn. Vienna becomes the capital.
	1192	Duke Leopold V., who had taken part in the Third Crusade, captures King Richard of England, who tries to pass incognito through Austria.
	1194	Vienna is enlarged and walled with the ransom of £40,000 paid by King Richard.
	1246	Duke Frederick II. dies in battle against the Hungarians and the dynasty of Babenberg becomes extinct.
The Austrian Interregnum.	1253	Ottokar, King of Bohemia, is elected Duke of Austria.
	1269	Ottokar conquers Styria, and inherits Carinthia and Carniola.
	1273	Rudolph, Count of Habsburg, is elected German Emperor.
	1278	Rudolph of Habsburg defeats Ottokar in the Battle of Marchfeld, near Vienna. Ottokar loses his life.
	1282	Rudolph invests his sons Albert and Rudolph with the duchies of Austria, Styria and Carniola. Establishment of the Habsburg dynasty.
From the establishment of the Habsburg Dynasty to Maxi- milian I.	1283	Albert I. becomes sole ruler. He is the first Habsburg on the throne of Austria.
	1335	Carinthia is added to Austria.
	1348	The university of Prague is founded.
	1349	The black death ravages Austria.
	1363	Tyrol is added to Austria.
	1364	The university of Cracow is founded.
	1365	The university of Vienna is founded. Accession of Duke Albert III., who reigns over Austria. His brother, Leopold III., takes Styria, Carinthia and Carniola. Division into an Albertine and Leopoldine branch.
	1382	Trieste places itself under the protection of the House of Austria.
	1386	Duke Leopold is killed in the Battle of Sempach, won by the Swiss. Independence of Switzerland secured.
	1415	John Huss, the Bohemian reformer, is burnt as a heretic.
	1440	The imperial library at Vienna is founded.
	1453	The Emperor Frederick III. raises Austria to the rank of an archduchy, granting it powers of an independent state and extensive privileges.
	1463	All the possessions of the House of Austria united again by Frederick III., who was Duke of Styria.
	1472	The Turks invade Carinthia and Carniola.
	1477	Marriage of Maximilian with Mary of Burgundy; the House of Austria acquires in this way the Low Countries.
The Consolidation of the Aus- trian Monarchy to the Thirty Years' War.	1493	Accession of Maximilian I.
	1499	The Peace of Basel, by which the House of Austria loses all its possessions in Switzerland.
	1500	The county of Görz added to Austria.
	1503	Tyrol enlarged as a result of a treaty with Bavaria.
	1512	The county of Gradisca added to Austria.
	1515	A peasant rebellion breaks out in Carniola.
	1519	Accession of Ferdinand I.
	1526	The Kingdom of Bohemia with Moravia and the Kingdom of Hungary united with Austria.
	1529	First Siege of Vienna by the Turks; city heroically defended; siege raised on October 15th.
	1545	One of the most important Roman Catholic Councils meets at Trent.
	1564	Accession of Maximilian II.
	1572	Maximilian II. proclaims freedom of conscience in Austria.
	1576	Accession of Rudolph II.
	1609	Rudolph II. signs the "Letter of Majesty," which grants the Protestants of Bohemia their demands.
	1612	Accession of Matthias II.
The last Habsburgs to the ex- tinction of the male line.	1618	The Protestants of Bohemia revolt. The event known as the Defenestration of Prague occurs (May 23rd).
	1619	Beginning of the Thirty Years' War.
	1619	Accession of Ferdinand II. Count Thurn, the leader of the Bohemian Protestants, invades Austria and marches on Vienna.
	1620	The Battle of the White Mountain near Prague. The Protestants are defeated, Bohemia loses her independence.
	1637	Accession of Ferdinand III.
	1648	End of the Thirty Years' War. The Peace of Westphalia is concluded. Alsace is ceded to France.
	1657	Accession of Leopold I.
	1664	The Austrians under Montecuculi inflict a crushing defeat on the Turks at St. Gothard on the river Raab.
	1683	The Turks besiege Vienna. The city is relieved by the great victory of Charles of Lorraine and John Sobieski, King of Poland (September 12th).
	1685	Charles of Lorraine defeats the Turks at Esztergom (Gran).
	1697	Prince Eugene of Savoy gains against the Turks the crowning victory of Zenta.
	1699	Peace of Carlovitz with Turkey, by which Croatia, Slavonia, Transylvania and Hungary, except the banat of Temesvar, are ceded to Austria.
	1701	Beginning of the War of the Spanish Succession.
	1705	Accession of Joseph I.
	1708	Austria acquires the duchy of Mantua.
	1714	Treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt concluded, ending the War of Spanish Succession. Austria acquires the Netherlands, Naples, Milan and Sardinia. Accession of Charles VI., the last male descendant of the Habsburgs.
	1718	Treaty of Passarowitz with the Turks, by which the banat of Temesvar is added to Hungary. The Quadruple Alliance formed between Austria, Great Britain, France and Holland. Charles VI. issues the Pragmatic Sanction, which establishes the indivisibility of the Habsburg dominions and secures the succession to the throne to his daughter, Maria Theresa.
	1736	Francis, Duke of Lorraine, marries Maria Theresa. He exchanges Lorraine, which is ceded to France for Tuscany.

# DATES OF AUSTRIAN HISTORY—*continued*

DYNASTY.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
The House of Habsburg-Lorraine. The period of Enlightened Despotism.	A.D.	
	1740	Accession of Maria Theresa. Beginning of the War of the Austrian Succession. Frederick II. of Prussia claims Silesia.
	1741	Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, is proclaimed King of Bohemia.
	1742	Charles Albert is elected German Emperor. The Habsburgs lose the imperial crown, but only for a short time. Treaty of Breslau, by which Austria cedes Silesia to Prussia. Frederick II. retires from the war, but only for a short time.
	1745	Francis of Lorraine, husband of Maria Theresa, is elected German Emperor; the imperial crown returns to the new House of Austria, that of Habsburg-Lorraine. [to Spain.]
	1748	Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ending the war of the Austrian Succession. Austria cedes Parma and Placentia to France.
	1756	Beginning of the Seven Years' War. Treaty of Versailles, concluding an alliance between Austria and France.
	1757	The Austrians under Daun defeat Frederick II. of Prussia at Kolin (June 18th). Frederick defeats the Austrians at Leuthen (December 5th).
	1759	Austrians under Loudon defeat Frederick at Kunersdorf. [(October 3rd).]
	1760	Frederick gains the victory at Liegnitz (August 15th). Berlin is taken by Austrians and Russians.
	1763	End of the Seven Years' War. Peace of Hubertsburg signed. Prussia definitely gains Silesia. Maria Theresa suppresses the Inquisition in Austria, expels the Jesuits, and introduces many ecclesiastical reforms. She also introduces many measures improving the condition of the serfs.
	1765	Maria Theresa makes her son, Joseph II., co-regent in the government of Austria. He is also elected [German Emperor.]
	1772	Austria gains Galicia by the first partition of Poland.
	1775	Bukovina is ceded to Austria by Turkey.
	1779	Austria gains the district of the Inn.
	1780	Accession of Joseph II. He closes many monasteries.
	1781	Joseph II. issues the Edict of Toleration, granting freedom of worship to the Lutherans, Calvinists and the Greek Catholics. He issues the edict emancipating the serfs. These were the two great lasting reforms of his reign.
	1784	The university of Lemberg is founded.
	1789	Belgium rises in revolt against Austria.
The Wars with Napoleon to the Treaty of Vienna.	1790	Accession of Leopold II.
	1792	Accession of Francis II. Beginning of the long wars with Revolutionary France and Napoleon. Austrians defeated at Jemappes by the French under Dumouriez.
	1793	Dumouriez defeated by the Austrians at Neerwinden.
	1796	Austria gains Western Galicia by the third partition of Poland.
	1797	Napoleon defeats the Austrians at Rivoli. Treaty of Campo Formio with France, by which Austria loses Belgium, Milan and Mantua, and gains Venice, Istria and Dalmatia.
	1800	Napoleon defeats the Austrians at Marengo. Austrians defeated at Hohenlinden.
	1801	Treaty of Lunéville. Beginning of the end of the Empire.
	1804	Francis takes the title of Francis I., Emperor of Austria.
	1805	The French under Murat capture Vienna (November 14th). Napoleon gains the Battle of Austerlitz (December 2nd). Peace of Pressburg. Austria loses Venice and Tyrol.
	1806	Dissolution of the German or Holy Roman Empire. Francis formally resigns the crown.
	1809	Napoleon captures Vienna (May 13th). Archduke Charles gains against Napoleon the Battle of Aspern (May 21st and 22nd). Napoleon wins the Battle of Wagram (July 5th and 6th). Metternich becomes Foreign Minister. Austria becomes the ally of Napoleon.
	1810	Andreas Hofer, the hero of the revolt of Tyrol against the French and Bavaria, is court-martialled and executed at Mantua.
The period of Absolutism to the Revolution of 1848.	1813	Austria joins the allies against Napoleon. The Battle of Leipzig (October 16th).
	1815	Treaty of Vienna gives back to Austria all the losses during the Napoleonic Wars, except Belgium. Lombardy and Venice made a kingdom and united to Austria. Austria obtains the presidency in the New German Confederation.
	1835	Accession of the Emperor Ferdinand I.
	1846	Cracow and the adjoining territory annexed.
The Accession of Francis Joseph to the formation of the Dual Monarchy.	1848	The Revolution breaks out at Vienna (March 11th). Fall of Metternich (March 13th). Insurrection in Italy (March 18th). Emperor grants a constitution (April 25th), which is not well received. Emperor leaves Vienna for Innsbruck (May 17th). Padua surrenders (June 15th). Windischgrätz crushes the rising at Prague (June 16th). Radetzky defeats the Italians at Custoza (July 25th). Another outbreak at Vienna—murder of the War Minister, Count Latour (October 6th). Vienna taken by Windischgrätz after a three days' battle (October 31st).
	1848	Accession of Emperor Francis Joseph (December 2nd). [constitution (March 4th).]
	1849	Radetzky defeats Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, at Novara (March 23rd). Emperor grants a
	1851	Emperor revokes the constitution. Beginning of the absolutist regime.
	1854	Austria enters into alliance with England and France.
	1855	Concordat concluded with the Pope granting extensive privileges to Roman Catholic clergy.
	1859	War with France and Sardinia. Austrians defeated at Magenta (June 4th) and Solferino (June 24th). Meeting of Napoleon III. and Francis Joseph at Villafranca (July 11th). Austria loses Lombardy.
	1861	A federalist constitution granted, which does not satisfy Hungary, Bohemia and Venice.
	1864	Austria joins Prussia in the war against Denmark.
	1866	War with Prussia and Italy. Italians defeated at Custoza (June 24th). Austrians defeated at Königgrätz or Sadowa (July 3rd). Austria gives up Venice and is definitely driven out from Italy and from the German Confederation.
The new Empire of Austria to the Great European War.	1867	Compromise with Hungary, by which the present Dual Monarchy is established. A new constitution granted to Austria.
	1868	Liberal laws passed taking the control of education and of the marriage laws from the hands of the clergy.
	1870	The Concordat with the Pope ended.
	1871	Count Julius Andrassy becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs.
	1873	Great International Exhibition opened at Vienna.
	1876	Meeting of Tsar and Emperor at Reichstadt. Agreement reached on the Near Eastern Question.
	1878	The Congress of Berlin authorizes Austria to provisionally occupy and administer the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina.
	1879	Offensive and defensive alliance with Germany.
	1882	Italy joins the alliance, transforming it into the Triple Alliance.
	1889	Suicide of Archduke Rudolph, heir to the throne, at the hunting lodge at Meyerling.
	1897	Prime Minister Badeni issues the famous language ordinances, which almost satisfied the demands of the Czechs. Great opposition by the Germans. Ordinances later repealed.
	1900	Cabinet presided over by Dr. von Körber inaugurates an extensive programme of social and economic legislation.
	1903	Visit of the Tsar at Vienna. Agreement concluded about reforms in Macedonia.
	1906	Baron von Aehrenthal appointed Foreign Minister.
	1907	Parliamentary franchise broadened; universal male suffrage introduced.
	1908	Austria annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina. Great European crisis follows.
	1912	Count Berchtold is appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs.
	1914	Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the heir to the throne, is assassinated at Sarajevo (June 23rd). Austria sends an ultimatum to Serbia (July 26th). Austria declares war on Serbia (July 28th). Beginning of the Great European War.
	1915	Baron Burián is appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs.

## CHAPTER XIX

### THE AUSTRIANS

By OSCAR BRILLIANT



THE CASTLE OF HABSBURG.

This castle, the cradle of the Imperial House of Austria, stands on the banks of the river Aar in Switzerland. The word Habsburg is supposed to be a corruption of "Habichtsburg," which means the "Castle of Vultures." Thus the castle gave its name to the powerful family which has had a continuous existence for more than nine centuries.

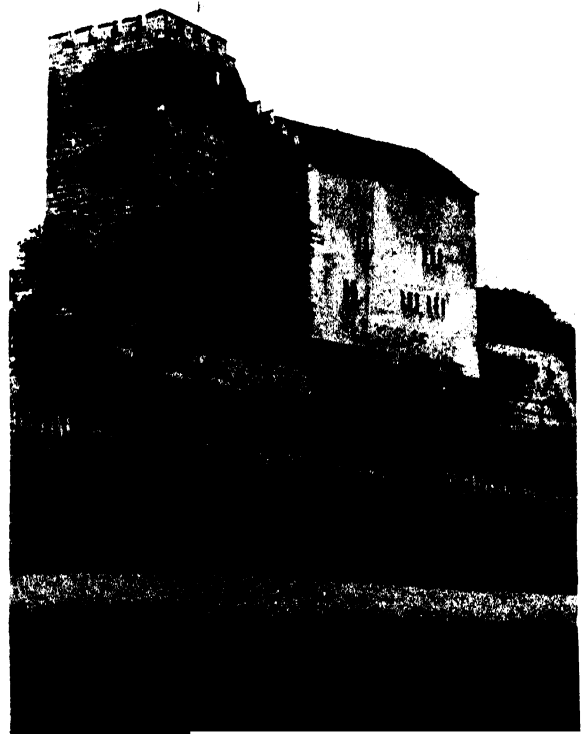
fought here and still continue to fight for supremacy.

Founded over a thousand years ago by Charlemagne as a defence of his empire against the Slavs, Austria—whether mark, duchy, archduchy or empire—has fulfilled that rôle. Standing sentinel over the valley of the Middle Danube, that great highway through which so many invaders have penetrated into the West of Europe, Austria has stopped the advance on Germany first of the Slavs, then that of the Hungarians, and lastly that of the Turks.

The name Austria is the Latin form of the German *Oesterreich*, which means "the Kingdom of the East," and was applied to the mark founded by Charlemagne at the beginning of the ninth century. It was so named because of its position to the east of Germany. It lay on the south bank of the Danube, east of the river Enns, and was only of small size, forming but a part of the present province of Lower Austria. But this mark was the nucleus around which have been grouped all the lands which now form the Austrian Empire. The process has been a long one, and Austrian history resolves itself into an account of the way in which these lands and their various peoples were gathered and held together. This has been accomplished by two dynasties, first that of the Babenbergs and then that of the Habsburgs.

We arrive now at the other salient characteristic of the history of Austria. This history is unique, for it is not the history of a nation but the history of a dynasty, specially that of the Habsburgs. We

AUSTRIA possesses a unique interest and importance in the history of the world. This great Power is situated in the centre of Europe, but on the threshold of the East—that East where so many great events have taken place and where so many knotty problems still await their solution. Its historic rôle has been determined by its geographical situation. Austria became the meeting-place and the battle-ground of the three principal races of Europe—the German, the Slav and the Latin, who have

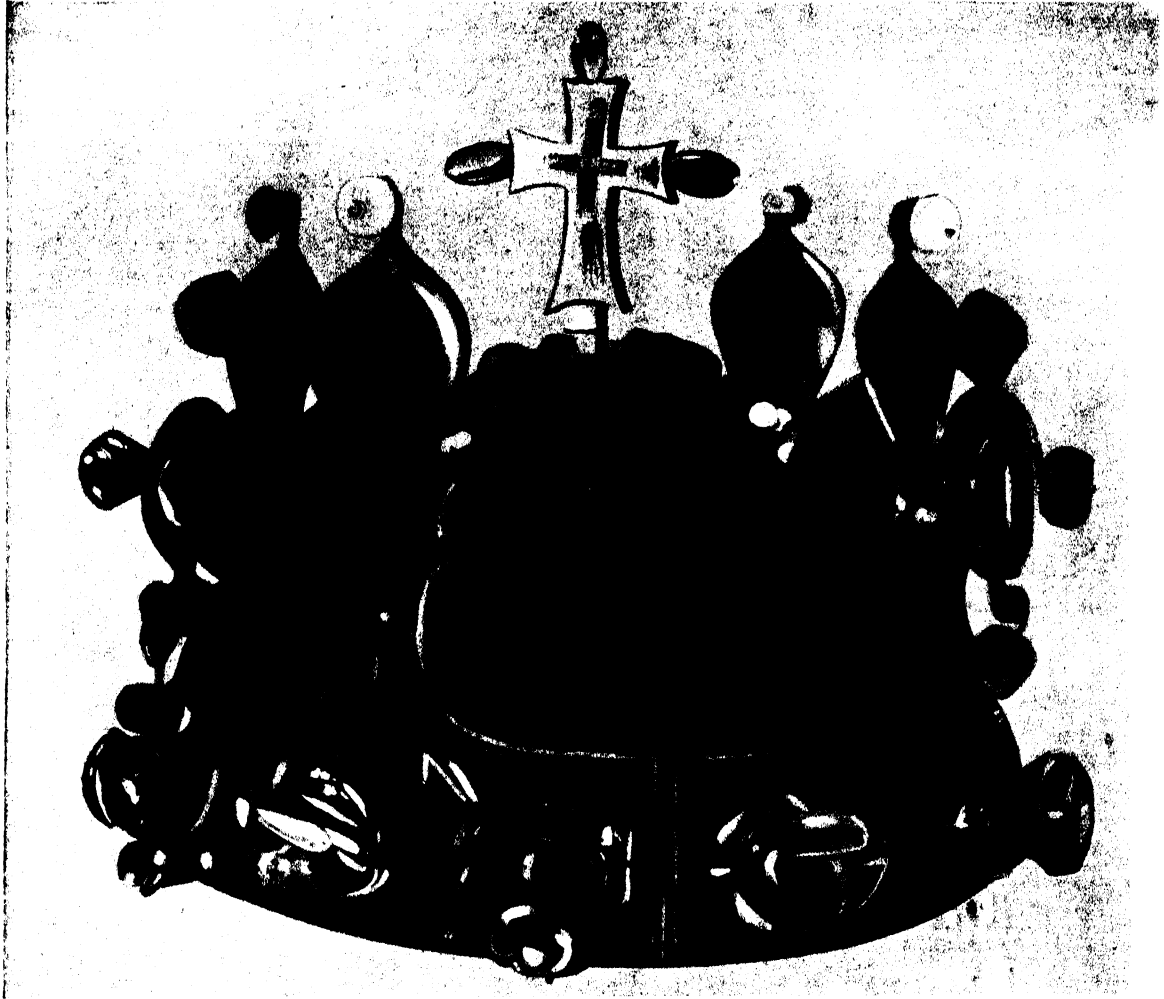


THE CASTLE OF HABSBURG.

The castle was built in the eleventh century by Werner, Bishop of Straßburg, and was remarkably strong even for an age of impregnable strongholds. The present ruin is, of course, only a fragment of the original castle, but some idea of its strength is conveyed by the thickness of the walls (three feet) of the one tower which remains.



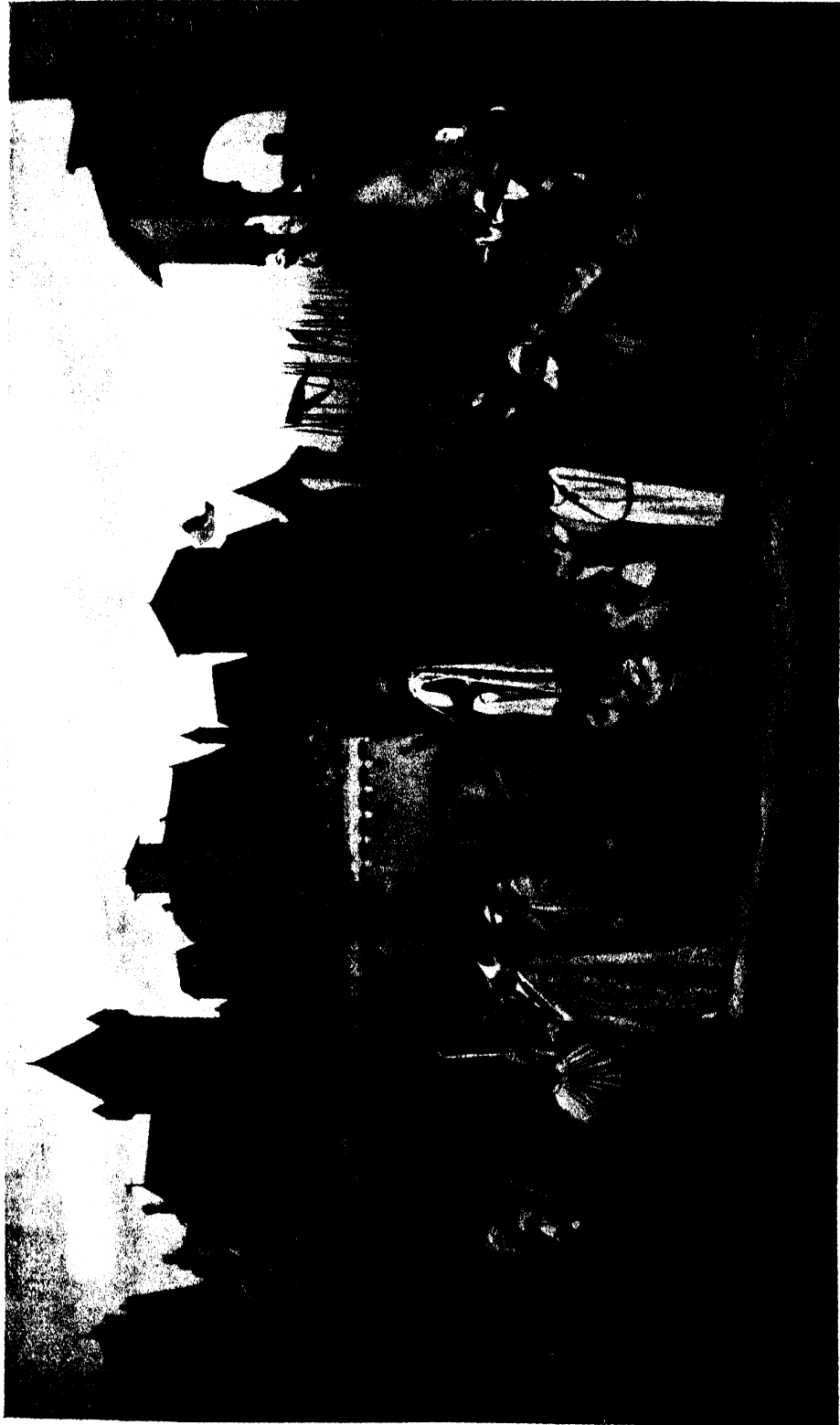
do not find here one single nation possessing one language, literature, religion, and aspiration, but we witness the gradual evolution under one government of many nationalities, bound together only by their common allegiance to the reigning dynasty. This partly explains the difficulties under which Austria has laboured, for perhaps no other power has weathered so many storms as the Habsburg Monarchy. In fact, the formation, growth, and continual existence of the Power of the House of Austria is one of the most remarkable events in the history of Europe. Dynastic Powers of the same kind as that of Austria have arisen twice before ; one was that of the House of Anjou in the twelfth century, the other



THE ANCIENT CROWN OF BOHEMIA.

Though Bohemia has long been merged in the empire of Austria-Hungary it is one of the most ancient kingdoms in Europe. The King of Bohemia first appears in the eleventh century as a promoted Duke of Prague, but within a short time the kingdom became virtually independent though nominally in the jurisdiction of the Emperors. The office of cup-bearer to the Emperor was a hereditary dignity of the kings of Bohemia.

that of the House of Burgundy in the fifteenth century. But the states formed by these two houses were dismembered very soon after their formation. Now why has the Power founded by Rudolph of Habsburg in the thirteenth century lasted until the present day? In the opinion of the best historians this is due to two causes. One was the acquisition of the crown of the Holy Roman Empire, which became almost hereditary in the Habsburg family. The prestige attached to that title and the influence derived from the position of German Emperor was used by the House of Austria with enormous advantage. Another cause is the inclusion within its dominions of the whole of the Hungarian nation, so that the Habsburg Monarchy gets in this way something of the strength



*From the painting*

#### LEOPOLD VI. ENTERING VIENNA, 1219.

Leopold VI., known as the Glorious, was the most distinguished and successful of the Babenberg archdukes of Austria, and during his reign of thirty years (1197-1230) the duchy was powerful, prosperous and a world-renowned centre of arts and learning. Owing to commercial and industrial development the towns, notably Vienna, grew in wealth and influence, and Leopold marked his sense of their increasing importance by granting them charters with extensive local rights and privileges.

*[By J. M. Trenkwalder.]*

of a national power. These two causes have on several occasions saved the Austrian Monarchy from breaking in pieces.

Let us now narrate the principal events in the long history of Austria and the important stages in her evolution from an insignificant border mark into one of the Great Powers of Europe.

The mark founded by Charlemagne was finally conquered by the Hungarians in 910. But after the crushing defeat inflicted on them by the Emperor Otto the Great at the Battle of Lechfeld in 955, the mark was again reconstituted. In 973 this margraviate was given to Leopold of Babenberg, who founded the dynasty which reigned here until 1246, when it became extinct. Although the office was not an hereditary one, it soon became so in the Babenberg family. For the mark served as a buffer-land between the empire and Hungary, and the Emperor was glad to make the defence of this exposed district the special interest of one family.

The Babenbergs ruled the mark with great skill, and succeeded in enlarging it by the acquisition of new



"TU, FELIX AUSTRIA, NUBE."

The key to Austrian history is the realization that she has not looked to arms but to diplomacy to extend and consolidate her dominions, and of all the weapons in the diplomatic armoury she has found none more profitable than marriage. Thus by marriage the House of Habsburg acquired Bohemia, Hungary, Burgundy and Spain. No wonder that the chronicler has said other lands may thrive by war, but "You, happy Austria, by marriage."

territories, so that it soon attained an important place among the states of the Holy Roman Empire.

Duke Henry II. (1141-1177) was one of the founders of Vienna. He constructed here a fortress, and in order to civilize the surrounding country, he brought several Scotch monks who were numerous at that time in Germany.

In 1156, an important date in the history of Austria, the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa in a famous charter raised Austria into an hereditary duchy, and conferred upon it other privileges which made it virtually an independent state. Its territory was also enlarged. Under Duke Leopold V. Austria gained the duchy of Styria (1192), and its name became known in Western Europe by the part he took in the Third Crusade. He quarrelled with Richard Cœur de Lion at the siege of St. Jean d'Acre, and when Richard was returning home and tried to pass *incognito* through Austria, Leopold seized him and kept him prisoner for a year. Under Duke Leopold VI., called the Glorious, who reigned from 1197 to 1230, the country reached great prosperity. He took measures for the development of commerce and industry, and granted charters to several towns, such as Vienna, Enns and Krems. He also encouraged arts and

learning, and his court was one of the most brilliant courts in Europe. His son Frederick, called the Fighter (1230-1246), was the last of the Babenbergs. He quarrelled with the Emperor Frederick II., and with all his neighbours. He died on the banks of the Leitha, while fighting against the Hungarians.

The Babenbergs not only increased the territory of their duchy, but also took care to increase its wealth and prosperity. The laws governing their lands were just, and some of them singularly tolerant when we consider the prejudices of the Middle Ages. Under the protection of these laws trade and industry developed rapidly. The situation of Austria between Germany, Hungary, Bohemia and Italy was one of the causes, but the chief cause was the Danube, that great artery of traffic which traverses the country. And prosperous towns began to spring up on its banks. The municipal laws of these towns show a striking analogy with those of Flanders, such as Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, Arras and Furnes. The reason is to be found in the large trade which the Low Countries were carrying on in these parts and in the number of Flemish merchants established here. Poetry also flourished, and some of the most celebrated Minnesingers passed part of their lives at the court of the Babenbergs.

At the death of the last of the Babenbergs, the Emperor Frederick II. claimed their inheritance as vacant fiefs of the Empire. But Ottokar I., King of Bohemia, was elected in 1251 by the estates of Austria as their duke. He conquered Styria in 1269, and, later, inherited also the duchies of Carinthia and Carniola. Ottokar was one of the most powerful sovereigns of the period, and he aspired to become



*From the Mausoleum of*

STATUE OF RUDOLPH I.

*[Maximilian I., at Innsbruck.]*

Rudolph is generally regarded as the true founder of the greatness of the Habsburg house. He inherited large possessions in Switzerland and Alsace, and by his great victory over King Ottokar of Bohemia on the Marchfeld he recovered Austria and acquired Styria, Carinthia and Carniola. The picture shows him as a warrior in the full panoply of a thirteenth-century knight.

Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. But the princes of Germany, fearing to elect such a powerful ruler, chose the poor Rudolph, Count of Habsburg, as Emperor.

Rudolph, to whom the House of Austria owes its origin and power, was the son of Albert IV., Count of Habsburg, and was born on May 1st, 1218. His family was descended from Guntram the Rich, Count of Alsace and Brisgau, who flourished in the tenth century. A grandson of Guntram became Bishop of Strasburg, and on an eminence situated on the banks of the Aar river in Switzerland, near its confluence with the Rhine, he built the castle of Habsburg, or "Habichtsburg," the "Castle of Vultures." This castle became the residence of the future counts and gave a new title to his descendants. The counts of Habsburg possessed large territories in Suabia, Alsace, and in the Aargau region, and in the cantons of Uri and Underwalden in Switzerland.

Ottokar refused to acknowledge Rudolph as his sovereign or to recognize the claim of the empire to the duchies he was ruling. Eventually Rudolph declared war against Ottokar, who was defeated and

lost his life in the desperate battle fought at Marchfeld on August 26th, 1278. This was one of the greatest battles of the Middle Ages, and one that had far-reaching consequences. Rudolph decided to confer these provinces that he had gained by the sword on his family, and in 1282 he formally invested his two sons, Rudolph and Albert, with the duchies of Austria, Styria and Carniola. In this way he founded the dynasty which has reigned over Austria for over six hundred years, and has become known as the House of Austria. Rudolph of Habsburg made a deep impression upon his contemporaries, and the following saying by a contemporary is characteristic of his fame: "O Lord God, keep a firm seat on Thy throne, else will Rudolph overthrow Thee also."



[From "Oesterreichisch-Ungarische Monarchie in Wort und Bild," Vienna.

Crystal glass and gold work from the time of Charles IV., Emperor of Germany and King of Bohemia. (Fourteenth century.)

The successors of Rudolph set themselves the task of extending their rule over the neighbouring territories. They pursued it with remarkable perseverance, and their efforts were crowned with success. And by wars, by settlement, by purchase, and by fortunate marriages the House of Austria gathered under its sceptre the numerous lands over which it rules. The well-known adage has been aptly applied to the House of Austria:

Bella gerant alii; tu, telix Austria, nibe.

Let others war; do thou, Austria, make fortunate marriages.

For marriage brought indeed fortune to this house.

But as the interests of the ruling dynasty were spread in many parts of Europe, the lands under their dominion suffered in their development. Such was the ambition of electing its members as German emperors, and the aid the dukes of Austria gave their family in their struggles with the Swiss. One of the early noteworthy rulers was Rudolph IV. (1358-1365), a son-in-law of the Emperor Charles IV., who founded in 1365 the University of Vienna. He acquired the county of Tirol in 1363, partly in virtue



*From the painting]*

#### RUDOLPH I.'s RIDE TO SPEIER.

*[By Moritz von Schwind.]*

Rudolph was elected German King in 1273. He at once secured the favour of the Pope by renouncing imperial pretensions in Italy and offering to lead a new Crusade. But though he had thus both papal and imperial authority behind him he was not a strong enough ruler to make his power felt throughout Germany, and his reign was marked by considerable lawlessness. In 1291, while on a journey to Speier, he died at Gernsheim.

of a marriage settlement and partly by purchase. This province united Austria with the family possessions of the Habsburgs in Switzerland and Germany, and, on the other hand, opened the way to Italy. Other gains of territory during the century were part of Istria in 1377, and the port of Trieste in 1382. On the other hand, the Habsburgs lost at the Battle of Morgarten (1315), and by the defeats at Sempach (1386), and at Naefels (1388) their possessions in Switzerland. This loss turned the attention of the Habsburgs from the Rhine to the Danube, and to the possibilities of expansion in the east of Europe.

Duke Albert V. was elected in 1438 Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, and with him begins the long and uninterrupted connection between the Habsburg family and the Imperial throne. One of the ambitions of the founder of the house was thus realized.

His successor, Frederick V. of Austria, known as the Emperor Frederick IV., ruled from 1440 to 1493.



From the painting]

[By Wenzel Brdick.

#### JOHN HUSS BEFORE THE COUNCIL OF CONSTANCE.

In 1414 the Emperor Sigismund convoked a great ecclesiastical council at Constance to consider the grave disorders of the Church and the spread of heresy. John Huss, a professor of Prague University, who had acquired popularity as an outspoken critic of current theology and clerical abuses and had been excommunicated, was summoned before it to be judged. He was called upon to withdraw his opinions and refrain from preaching heretical doctrines. He refused, and was burnt at the stake on the 6th of July, 1415.

He raised Austria to the rank of an archduchy in 1453, and since that time the title of archduke has been borne by all the members of the House of Austria. The Austrian dominions suffered great misfortune during his reign. He had to contend with several risings both by nobles and by the burghers of the towns. His southern provinces were ravaged by the invasion of the Turks, and, lastly, Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary, drove him from Vienna (1485), and even conquered in 1487 the whole of Austria, Styria and Carinthia. It seemed for a while that the Habsburgs had lost these hereditary dominions. But in spite of all his misfortunes, Frederick had great faith in the future glory and prosperity of his House, and under his reign we meet for the first time with the famous monogram "A.E.I.O.U." This has been often interpreted as standing for *Austria est imperare orbi universo*, meaning, "It is the destiny of Austria to rule the world." This monogram is found on his pottery, on the books of his library, and is engraved on his tomb in the St. Stephen's Cathedral in Vienna. He lived long enough, however, to see the downfall of all his enemies, while his son Maximilian was the second founder of the

greatness of the Habsburg family.

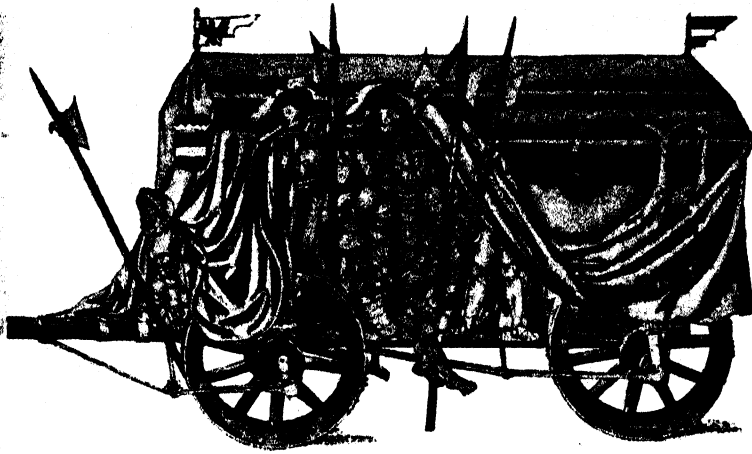
With Maximilian I. the House of Austria gains a European importance, and from that time its name is writ large on the pages of European history. He married in 1477, at the age of eighteen, Mary of Burgundy, the only daughter of

definitely its possessions in Switzerland; but he gained, later, the counties of Görz and Gradisca, and some more parts of Tirol.

Maximilian I. was an able and energetic ruler, and introduced in the administration many reforms which tended to give greater unity to the hereditary lands. During his reign the postal service was for the first time introduced in Austria; and the first postal connection between Vienna and Brussels was also established in his time. Maximilian was a man of great accomplishments. His restless soul

posterity as Maximilian I.

Maximilian was specially concerned to ensure the future greatness of his House, in which, like his father, he had great faith, and all his plans were directed towards this end. By his own marriage he acquired some of the inheritance of the Duke of Burgundy. This brought him into

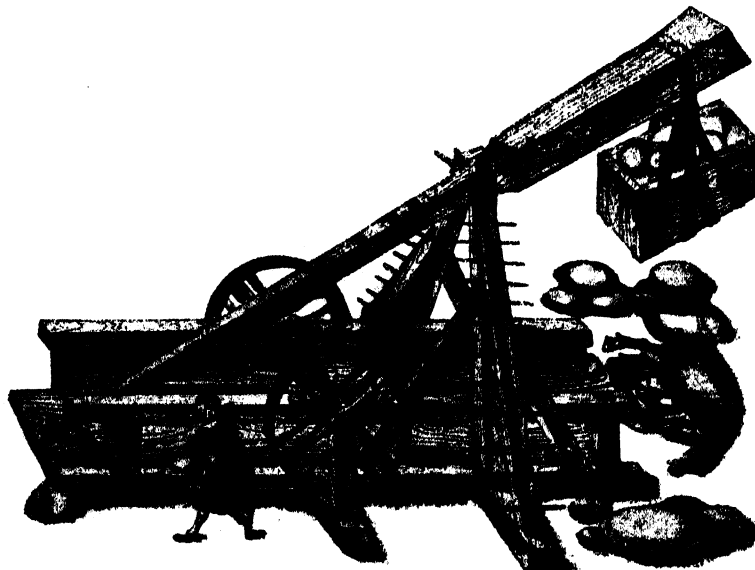


Reproduced from the book]

[“ Die Zeugbücher des Kaisers Maximilian I.”

## TROOP WAGGON OF THE ARMY OF MAXIMILIAN I.

This waggon used for transporting troops in the time of Maximilian I. is constructed mainly after suggestions made by the Emperor himself. It is fully covered and holds twenty-five heavily armed infantrymen. The armour of the soldiers, their helmets, as well as the arms they carry, are typical of the equipment of infantry during the first part of the sixteenth century.



Reproduced from the book]

[“ Die Zeugbücher des Kaisers Maximilian I.”

## CATAPULT OF THE ARMY OF MAXIMILIAN I.

This is a typical specimen of the machines used at that period for throwing stones or even rubbish into a fortified place or a castle. It is constructed of wood, and the big beam, to which is attached the basket with the stones, is swung in all directions by the horizontal bar, which is moved by the aid of the two wheels seen in the picture.



enmity with the Kings of France, and from that time dates the rivalry between the Habsburgs and the Bourbons, which has been such an important feature in the history of Europe.

The marriage of his only son, Philip the Handsome, with Joanna of Spain, brought to the House of Habsburg the immense Spanish dominions. They had two sons, Charles and Ferdinand. His

grandson, Charles, known to history as Charles V., succeeded him as German Emperor in 1519. Charles concluded a treaty with his brother Ferdinand, by which he ceded to him all the Austrian lands. These two brothers thus became the founders of the two principal Habsburg branches: the Spanish, which ended in 1700, and the Austrian, which became extinct in the male line in 1740.

But of a more lasting value to the House of Habsburg was the marriage of the grandchildren of Maximilian, Ferdinand and Mary of Austria, with Louis and Anna, the children of Vladislav, the King of Hungary and Bohemia. It was these matrimonial alliances with the reigning family of Hungary and Bohemia which laid the foundations of the present Austrian Monarchy.

The special event that brought this about was the successful advance of the Turks in Europe. They had already conquered the whole of the Balkan Peninsula, and in 1526 they invaded Hungary. At the fatal Battle of Mohács the Hungarians were defeated, and Louis, the young King of Hungary and Bohemia, was slain. Owing to his marriage to the king's sister, Ferdinand put in his claim to the vacant thrones. The estates in both countries, in face of the common enemy, realized that their only salvation was in a union of the three states and elected Ferdinand. The period was also favourable for the building of a big state, for in the west of Europe several big states had just been consolidated. In 1531 Ferdinand was also elected Emperor of Germany in succession to his brother, Charles V.

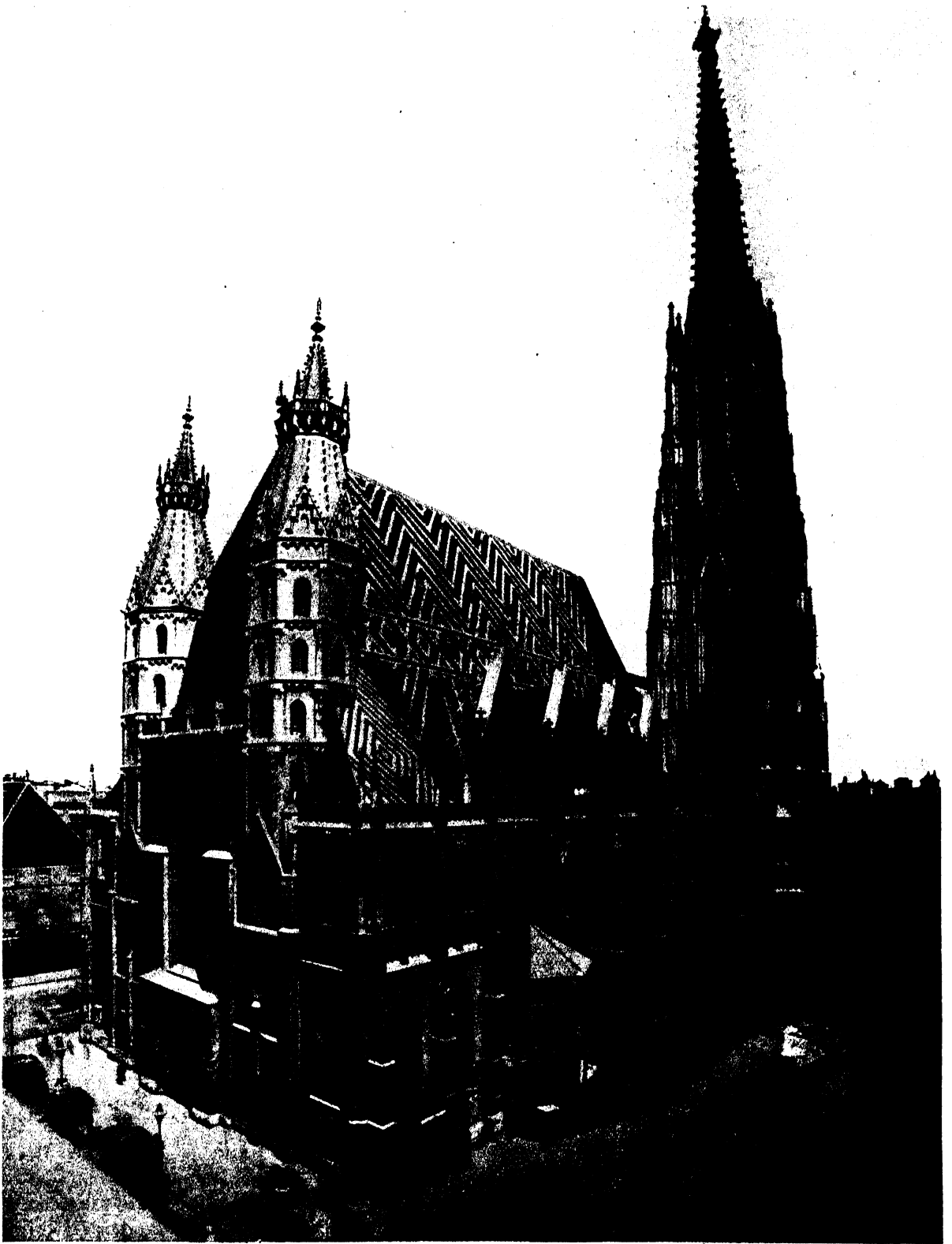
It must be noticed that the estates both of Bohemia and of Hungary looked upon the election as a personal union only under one sovereign. They desired to remain separated from what were the hereditary states of the House of Habsburg. But Ferdinand set himself



TOMB OF FREDERICK III., IN ST. STEPHEN'S, VIENNA.

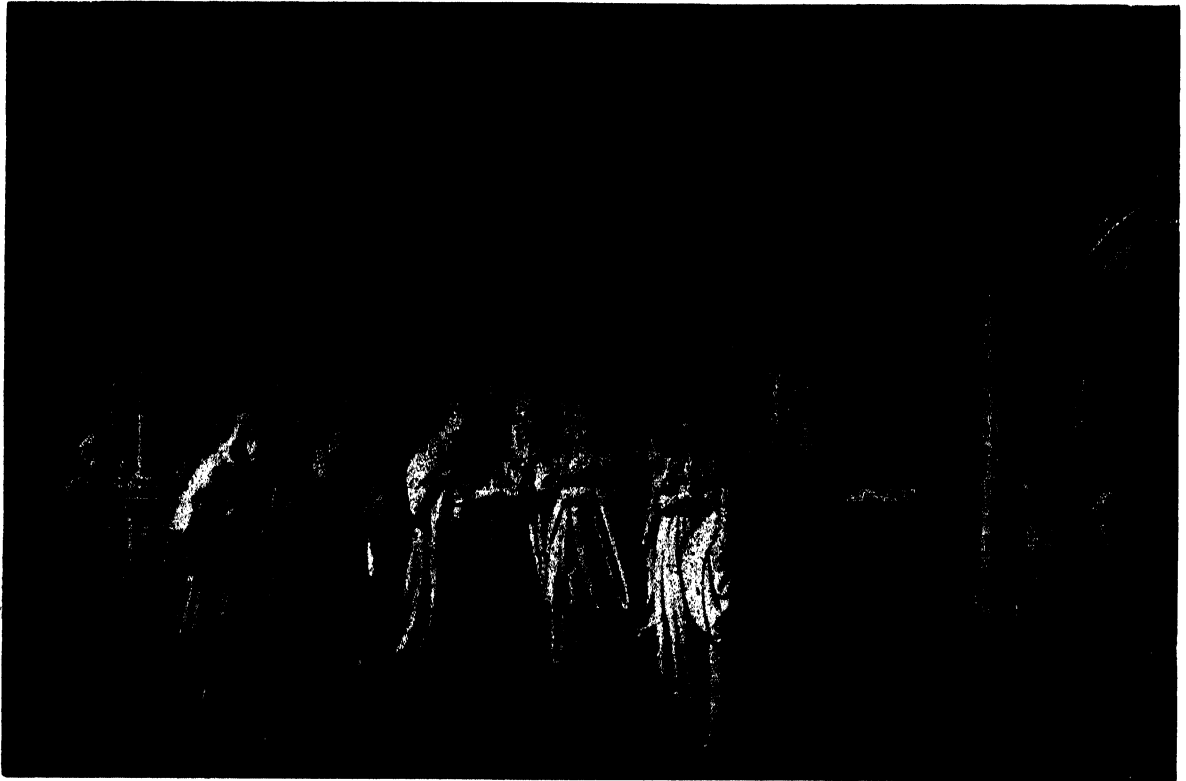
Frederick III. was the first of the Emperors to be buried in Vienna, but after his death the Imperial dignity became almost hereditary in his family, and so most of his successors have their tombs in the Habsburg capital. Frederick himself was a man of little ability and vacillating character, and his reign was marked by anarchy within and disaster without. He died in 1493.

to make the rule of his House in both these countries permanent. To him this union meant a great addition to the Habsburg lands, and his policy was to centralize the government. Under him the characteristics of the Habsburg rule until 1867 begin to appear. The government was absolutist, centralizing, and Germanizing. German being the language of the empire, became the official language of the whole monarchy. The Habsburgs enlisted in support of their idea of state the two great forces



ST. STEPHEN'S, VIENNA.

St. Stephen's, the cathedral church of Vienna and the metropolitan church of Austria, stands on the site of a Romanesque church burnt down in 1193, and itself dates from the thirteenth to the sixteenth centuries. As its erection thus occupied three centuries it is hardly surprising that it embodies work of the Romanesque, Gothic and Renaissance styles. It contains several important tombs, notably that of the Emperor Frederick III.



MARRIAGE OF MAXIMILIAN AND MARY OF BURGUNDY.

This is a representation of the marriage in 1477 of Maximilian of Austria to Mary, heiress of the great possessions of the House of Burgundy. By this fortunate alliance, the House of Habsburg, which had fallen on evil days, found itself in possession of the populous and wealthy Netherlands, especially after Mary's early death.

of the period—the Roman Catholic Church and the nobility. They worked to create in the three separate states a nobility which would depend on them, and would be the principal support of their throne. Needing the help of the Church, this dynasty became its strong defender. The alliance between Rome and the Habsburgs, which was at the beginning the result of political calculation, became afterwards almost permanent, and gave to the House of Austria that deep attachment to Catholicism which is one of its strongest characteristics.

After the Battle of Mohács, Sultan Soleiman considered himself master of Hungary. As this was contested by Ferdinand, the Sultan invaded in 1529 Austria at the head of an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men and besieged Vienna. The city was defended by a force of twenty-four thousand men only, but it put up an heroic defence. After several unsuccessful assaults Soleiman was compelled to retire. But from now on Austria waged almost a continual warfare with the Turks until the whole of Hungary was reconquered.

The Reformation was the principal question which agitated Austria, as well as Germany, during the sixteenth century. Ferdinand I. maintained a tolerant attitude towards the Protestants in Austria. The inhabitants of the Archduchy of Austria and of the Duchy of Styria were nearly all Protestants, while in Bohemia and Moravia the Hussites were in a great majority. These two last provinces specially had waged a long struggle in favour of religious liberty. With the accession in 1576 of Rudolph II., a fanatical Catholic, who tried to reintroduce Catholicism, the religious quarrels became very acute. But in Bohemia Rudolph was compelled to sign in 1609 the famous "Letter of Majesty," which satisfied the demands of the Protestants in that country. Rudolph was succeeded in 1612 by his brother Matthias, who reigned until 1619, and was succeeded by Ferdinand II., who had been elected in 1618 German Emperor. Ferdinand II. was known as a strong enemy of the Protestants, and he was hated in Bohemia for the ruthless way in which he tried to extirpate Protestantism in Styria. A slight incident in Bohemia

followed by the event known as the Defenestration of Prague (May 23rd, 1618), when the Protestants threw out of the window of the Royal Palace at Prague two royal councillors, was the beginning of the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648). The revolt in Bohemia was crushed in the following year, but Ferdinand wished to suppress Protestantism in Germany.

Ferdinand was at the head of the Catholic League and at his side were fighting the famous generals Wallenstein and Tilly. Ferdinand was successful in the first period of the war, and it seemed that the House of Austria would establish its predominance over the whole of Germany. But the intervention (1630) and victories of Gustav Adolphus, the King of Sweden, changed the situation altogether, and proved the death-blow of the ambitions of the Habsburgs. By the Peace of Westphalia (1648) the Habsburgs lost Alsace to France, and the unity of Germany was destroyed. But the possession of the title of Emperor still continued to give the House of Austria prestige.

In the Austrian dominions more lasting results were accomplished. The Bohemians were defeated in 1620 at the Battle of the White Mountain near Prague, and this defeat removed Bohemia from the list of independent countries. Protestantism was uprooted here, and Catholicism established by means of terrible persecutions. Bohemia was completely incorporated with Austria and her ancient constitution and privileges destroyed. The German language was introduced in administration, education, and the law-courts, and every method employed to destroy the Czech nationality and to Germanize the country.

The long reign of forty-eight years of Leopold I. (1657-1705) marks a great step towards the realization of the external aspirations and the internal organization of Austria. By his campaigns against the Turks in 1662-64 and in 1683-99, these were driven out of Hungary. In the first campaign Montecuculi defeated the Turks at St. Gothard on the Raab in 1664, and Transylvania became an independent principality. Under the instigation of France and of Hungarian rebels the Turks, under the Grand Vizier, Kara Mustapha, invaded Hungary in 1683 with an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men. They pushed vigorously on and besieged Vienna. After an heroic resistance, the city was relieved by the timely arrival of the Duke Charles of Lorraine and of John Sobieski, the King of Poland (September 12th, 1683). The defeat of the Turks under the walls of Vienna marks the beginning of the end of their power in Europe, and the rise of Austria in the East. After a long and brilliant campaign, Prince Eugene of Savoy gained the decisive victory of Zenta (September 11th, 1697). This was followed by the Treaty of Carlowitz, by which the whole of Hungary and Transylvania was liberated from the



MAXIMILIAN I. AND HIS FAMILY.

Maximilian was specially concerned to ensure the future greatness of his House, and all his plans were directed to that end. By his own marriage he acquired some of the inheritance of the Duke of Burgundy. The marriage of his only son, Philip the Handsome, with Joanna of Castile brought to the House of Habsburg the immense Spanish possessions. The matrimonial alliances of his grandchildren with the reigning family in Hungary and Bohemia laid the foundations of the present Austrian monarchy.



THE BESIEGERS OF VIENNA.

This sixteenth-century woodcut is valuable and interesting as showing types of the vast Turkish host with which Sultan Soliman the Magnificent fruitlessly besieged Vienna in the memorable year 1529.

Turks. The Crown of Hungary was now made hereditary in the House of Habsburg, and the edifice of the Austrian Monarchy was completed. Prince Eugene of Savoy and Archduke Charles, the hero of Aspern, are the greatest military commanders that Austria has produced.

Meanwhile in the West of Europe Louis XIV. was waging its wars against the Habsburgs, specially against the Spanish branch. In the so-called War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713), England fought at the side of Austria against the ambitions of Louis XIV. to dominate Europe. By the Peace of Utrecht the Spanish throne was secured by a Bourbon, but the House of Austria gained the Spanish Netherlands, Naples, Milan, Mantua, and established itself in Italy.

Charles VI., who reigned from 1711 to 1740, was the only surviving male of the Habsburg family. Being without sons, he desired to secure the throne to his daughter, Maria Theresa. He promulgated (1713), therefore, a new law of succession, known as the Pragmatic Sanction, in which he proclaimed the unity and indivisibility of the Austrian dominions. The Pragmatic Sanction is the corner-stone on which the organization of the modern Austro-Hungarian Monarchy rests, and one of its present fundamental laws. After this law was approved by the various diets, Charles VI. worked to gain by diplomatic means the assent of the European Powers to it. To this object he sacrificed every other consideration, and he succeeded in concluding with the principal Powers treaties which guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction.



THE DEFENDERS OF VIENNA.

Just as the previous woodcut shows types of the besiegers of Vienna, this one shows types of the defenders and the arms and accoutrements of the period. Then, as now, the army was organized in various branches, and distinctions of rank were rigidly maintained.



*From the painting*

#### THE EDUCATION OF DON JOHN OF AUSTRIA.

Don John had the Emperor Charles V. for his father and a washerwoman for his mother. Such was the prosaic beginning of one of the most romantic careers in history. The Emperor had him brought up in Spain in the house of a palace official named Quixada. According to one version of the story it was Philip II. himself who revealed to Don John his royal descent and took him back to the court to be educated with other princes of the royal house.

*(By N. Martinez Cubells.)*



Habsburg possessions, 1283.



Lands of the Austrian House, 1526.

Charles VI. continued the wars against the Turks, and the victories of Prince Eugene of Savoy, and especially his brilliant capture of Belgrade in 1717, compelled them to conclude the treaty of Passarowitz (1718). By this treaty the Banat of Temesvar was annexed, and the Turks were driven permanently across the Danube. Austria had now fulfilled her mission of delivering Western Europe of the Turkish peril. The struggle of nearly two centuries had resulted in the triumph of the Habsburgs. If the ambitious House of Austria had not been engaged in other parts of Europe, she would have followed the advice of Prince Eugene of Savoy, and would have become the liberator of the Christian peoples of the Balkan Peninsula and the successor of Turkey in Europe.

The death of Charles VI. witnessed one of the greatest crises in the history of Austria, and it seemed, indeed, that the Monarchy was on the point of breaking up. Maria Theresa succeeded to the throne in virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction, which had the guarantee of the Powers. But it soon became apparent that such guarantees are worthless parchments where there is strong temptation to break them and only a feeble army to support them. Several claimants to the provinces and throne of Austria immediately appeared. Amongst them was Charles Albert, Duke of Bavaria, who had married a cousin of Maria Theresa. But it was Frederick II. of Prussia, who had been most assiduous in his assurances of friendship and support, who attacked her first. Without any declaration of war he invaded Silesia, to which Prussia had some old claims. The Prussian victory at Mollwitz (April 17th, 1741) kindled all Europe. Spain, Bavaria, Sardinia, Saxony and France saw their opportunity to expand at the expense of Austria, and the war, known as the War of the Austrian Succession, did not end until 1748.

But this war, although it showed the weakness of Austria, revealed also unexpected sources of strength. Not the least of these was the character of Maria Theresa herself, who according to the verdict of Carlyle was "most brave, high and pious-minded; beautiful, too, and radiant with good nature; perhaps the most noble woman then living."

The plight of Maria Theresa was indeed great. In this emergency the Hungarians rallied to her support and saved her throne. In response to her personal appeal in the historic scene at the Diet at



Dominions of Austria, 1792.



Austria after the Vienna Congress, 1815.

Pressburg the Hungarians pledged their loyalty with the famous cry: "Moriatur pro rege nostro" ("We will lay down our lives for our King").

England alone amongst the European Powers sided with Austria. In that country motives of honour, for England signed the treaty guaranteeing the Pragmatic Sanction in 1731, and of policy combined to support the rights of Maria Theresa. Her cause, therefore, excited a remarkable enthusiasm in this country, and it was England's influence which compelled Frederick to sign the Treaty of Breslau. By this treaty Austria had to give up Silesia to Prussia, but Frederick retired from the war—at least, for a little while. Meanwhile, Francis of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany and husband of Maria Theresa, was elected Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in 1745. Thus the Imperial Crown returned to the new House of Austria, that of Habsburg-Lorraine, and France had missed the principal object for which she had gone to war. By the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), which ended the war, the Austrian



*By permission of]*

*[The Photochrom Co. Ltd*

CHANCELLOR WILHELM BIENER AT THE LANDTAG, AT INNSBRUCK.

Amongst the statesmen who served the Habsburgs during the troubled period of the Thirty Years' War one of the most influential and capable men was Wilhelm Biener, who since 1630 occupied the position of Chancellor of the Duchy of Tyrol. But the Court party, who hated him, brought about his downfall in 1651 and succeeded in having him condemned to death for treason. He was executed on July the 17th, 1651, in the Castle of Rattenberg.

Monarchy emerged stronger in some respects than when the war started, while the position of the House of Austria was also strengthened.

After the war Maria Theresa began a series of reforms which transformed the monarchy into a modern state. She introduced a centralized system of administration, which bound more closely all the parts of her empire. The traditional Catholic absolutism of the Habsburgs was substituted by an enlightened despotism of the lay government. She desired to bring about the unification of her empire by the formation among her subjects of a mental and moral unity based on a uniform system of education. For that purpose she introduced a system of compulsory education and established many schools. She also attempted to introduce German as the official language of the whole monarchy. Although a devout Catholic, she resisted the pretensions of the Papacy in her dominions, and reformed many ecclesiastical abuses. But she introduced all these changes with wisdom and moderation, just contrary to the methods employed later by her son, Joseph II.

The result of the War of the Austrian Succession was a radical change in the foreign policy of Austria. It became evident that France was no longer the power to be dreaded, and that the rise of Prussia, with her unscrupulous and grasping methods, was a far more dangerous enemy. Under the guidance of Count Kaunitz, her new foreign minister, Maria Theresa concluded with France in 1756 a treaty of



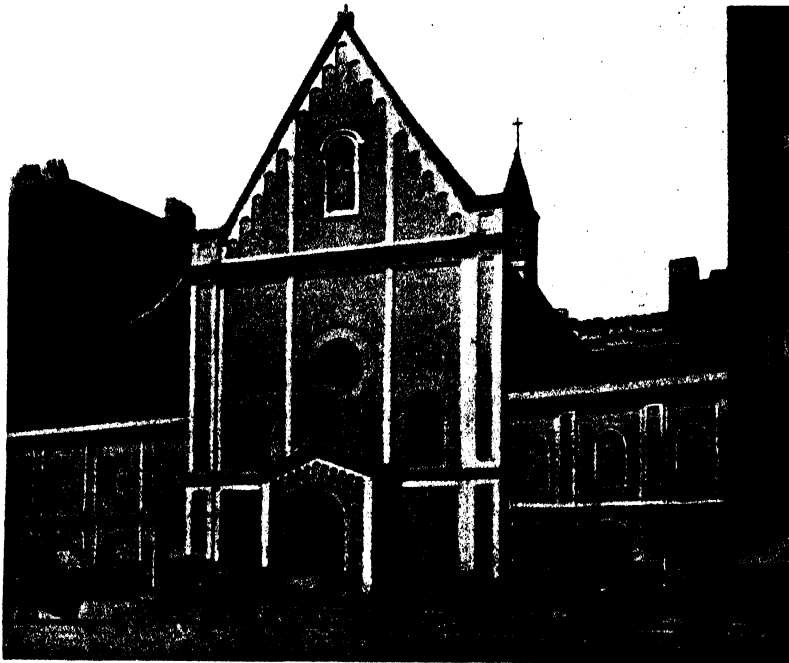
alliance, and the old rivalry between the Habsburgs and the Bourbons came to an end. At the same time, Russia was beginning to take a more prominent part in the affairs of Europe.

The desire of Maria Theresa to regain Silesia was the cause of the Seven Years' War (1756-1763); she did not succeed in her object. But the struggle between Austria and Prussia for hegemony in Germany was now started, and the issue was not definitely decided till 1866. The loss of Silesia induced Austria to try to strengthen her position in South Germany by the annexation of Bavaria. An attempt was made in 1777, on the death of the Duke of Bavaria, but was foiled by the armed intervention of Prussia. A second attempt made in 1784 by Joseph II. was also foiled through the same intervention.

Maria Theresa, nevertheless, added to her dominions in 1772 Galicia, by the first partition of Poland, in which she took part with great reluctance, and Bukovina which was ceded by the Turks in 1775. The ambitions of Catherine of Russia, her successful wars with Turkey, and the possibility of a Russian occupation of the Balkan Peninsula, were very menacing signs for Austria. Her policy towards Turkey

underwent a change, and in 1771 Austria concluded a defensive alliance with the Sublime Porte. But the partition of Poland changed that policy, and left Turkey at the mercy of Russia.

A contemporary Austrian historian sums up thus the reign of Maria Theresa: "On the accession of Maria Theresa, the Monarchy had neither external influence nor internal vigour; for ability there was no emulation and no encouragement; the state of agriculture was miserable, trade small, the finances badly managed, and credit bad. At her death, she left to her successor a kingdom improved by her many reforms, and placed in that rank which its size and fertility and the intelligence of its inhabitants ought always to enable it to maintain."



THE CAPUCHIN CHURCH IN VIENNA.

This is a baroque edifice dating from the early part of the seventeenth century, and though without artistic importance is noteworthy as containing the burial vaults of the House of Habsburg. Here lie the Emperors of the sixteenth to the twentieth centuries, and here also are the tombs of Maria Theresa, Marie Louise, wife of Napoleon, and their son, the Duc de Reichstadt.

Maria Theresa was succeeded in 1780 by her son Joseph II., who had been elected German Emperor in 1765, at the death of his father, and was also since that time co-regent with his mother in Austria. He was a disciple of Rousseau and was full of advanced humanitarian ideas. "Reason" and "enlightenment" were his watchwords. "I have made Philosophy the law-maker of my empire. Her logical applications are going to transform Austria," he wrote in 1781. And thus he undertakes reforms in all directions at once. He sets about to eradicate historic rights, traditional institutions, racial differences—all by decrees. His ideal was the equality of his subjects under the sway of a uniform government. He tried, therefore, to introduce in all the provinces the same constitution, legislation, and administration without taking into consideration the historic rights, the race differences and the aspirations of his peoples. His attempt to make German the official and universal language of his empire caused the greatest resentment.

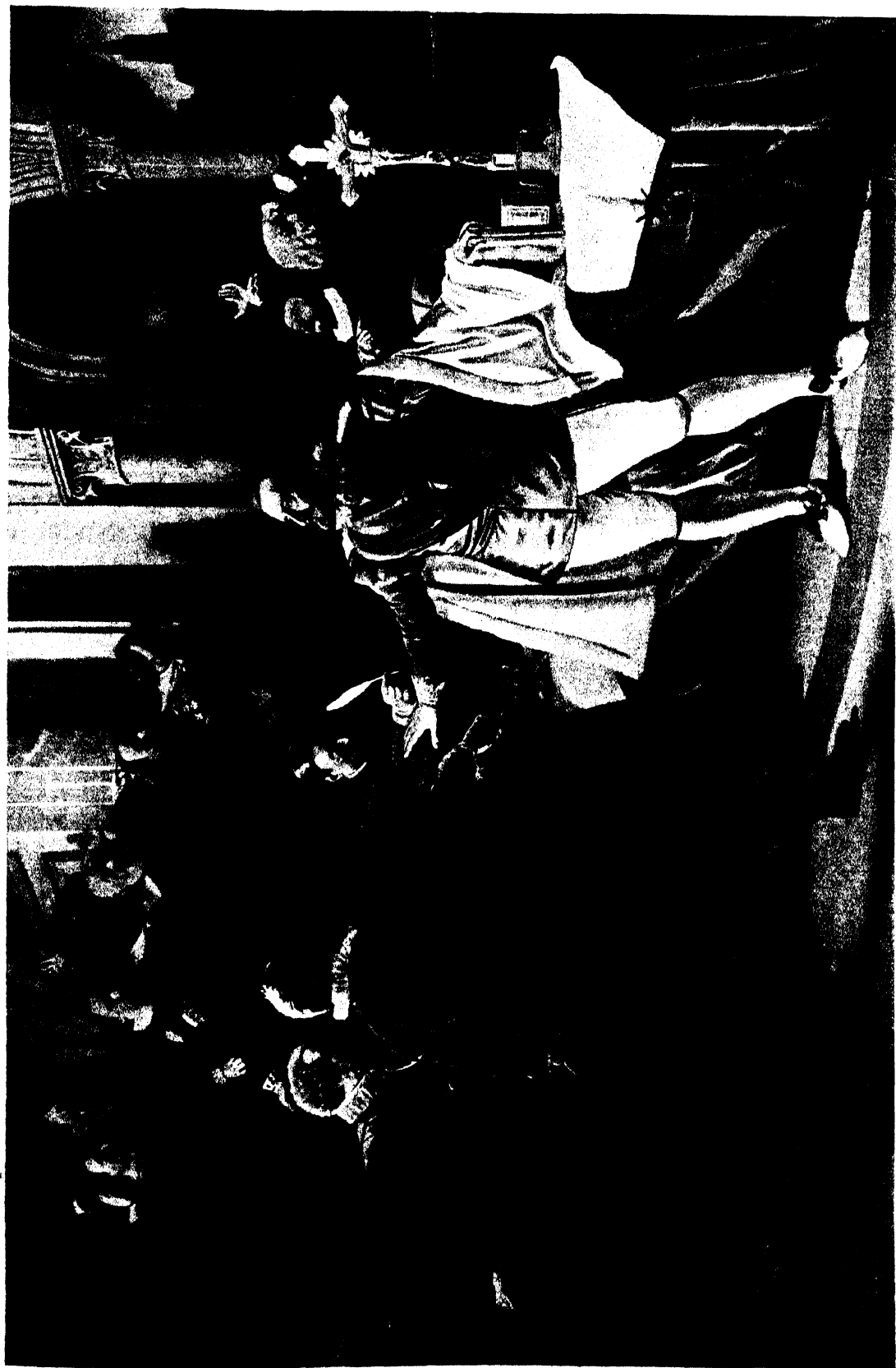
But he introduced social reforms which have proved lasting. These were the taxation of the nobles and of Church property, the abolition of serfdom, and religious toleration to all sects. He was compelled



PHILIPPINE WELSER BEFORE THE EMPEROR FERDINAND AT INNSBRUCK.

The life of Philippine Welser is one of the most romantic in Tyrolean history. She was descended from an influential family of Augsburg merchants, the members of which had received special privileges from the Emperor Charles V. On her betrothal to the Archduke Ferdinand, she was received with marked favour at court by his father, the Emperor Ferdinand I. At the close of a happy married life in 1580, she was buried in the Franciscan or Court church, at Innsbruck, where her husband also lies buried.



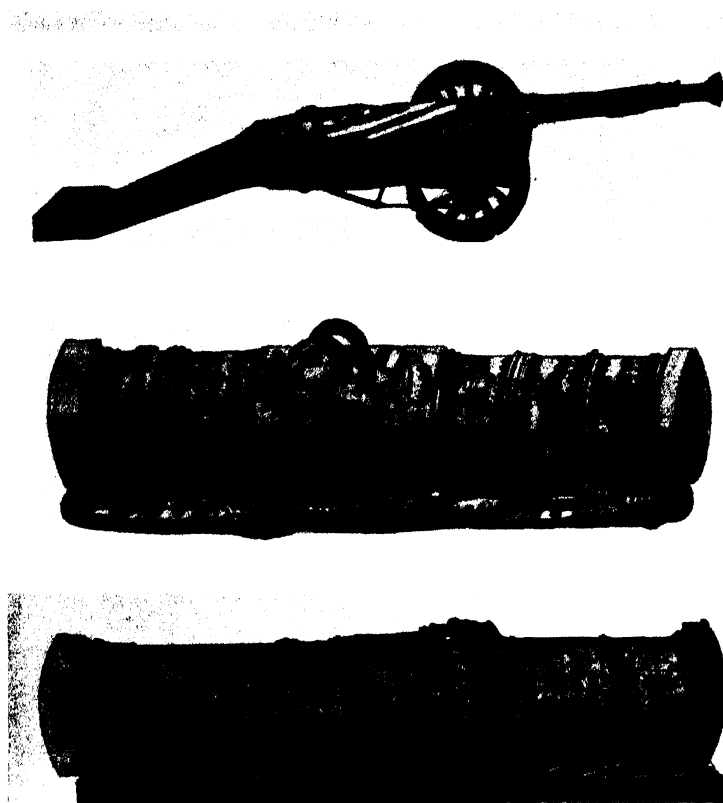


From the painting]

#### FERDINAND II. REPELLING THE PROTESTANT INSURGENTS.

[By Karl Würinger.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. will always be associated with Philip II. of Spain as the apostle of relentless bigotry. In his youth he is said to have taken a vow that he would extirpate Protestantism in his dominions. To obtain the thrones of Bohemia and Hungary he was compelled to guarantee religious toleration in those countries, and his dishonest repudiation of that guarantee was the direct cause of the terrible religious conflict known as the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648).



*Reproduced from the book]*

*[“ Die Zeugbücher des Kaisers Maximilian I.”]*

#### MEDIEVAL ARTILLERY.

Cannon, as engines of warfare, seem to have first been employed towards the end of the thirteenth or early in the fourteenth century. We hear from the chroniclers of their use at the Battle of Crecy in 1346. By the sixteenth century several different types and sizes had been evolved, the larger being usually termed “culverins” and the smaller “sakers,” “falcons” or “basilisks,” an example of which is the uppermost piece in this picture.

Hungary was on the point of revolt, Bohemia was dissatisfied, while Belgium and Tirol were actually rising in revolt, when he was compelled to repeal most of his decrees. Soon afterwards (1790) Joseph II. died, in the forty-ninth year of his life, broken-hearted at the misunderstanding of his good intentions and at the failure of his well-meant acts. It is said that he wished to have inscribed on his tomb the following words: “Here lies a prince whose intentions were pure, but who was unsuccessful in all his enterprises.” To-day his memory is cherished in the cottages of the poor and the humble, whose lot he so persistently strove to improve.

His successor, Leopold II., was a man of great ability, no enthusiast and no dreamer, but clear-headed and resolute. He found his dominions in a state of the utmost confusion, with rebellion rife in the interior and war threatening on all sides. He reverted to the traditional methods of the Habsburgs, and restored the old supremacy of the Church, which had served so long as the one effective means of government. He repealed other unpopular edicts of Joseph II., and succeeded in re-establishing order within a short time. But in Belgium he had to employ a big army before the revolt there was subdued. He also finished successfully the war Austria was waging with Turkey at the death of Joseph II.

Leopold was crowned Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire at the end of 1790, and it was in that capacity that he came in conflict with the French Revolution. As Emperor he had to defend the feudal rights of many German princes in Alsace, Lorraine, and other parts, which were suppressed by the French Constituent Assembly. The refusal of the demands made by the French Government regarding the French emigrants assembled in the Rhine provinces brought about the war with France. Leopold

later to repeal most of his decrees of reform, except the last two, which have proved highly beneficial. He curtailed the privileges of the clergy, put them under state control, and compelled them to cut their ties with the Pope at Rome. He reduced the number of monasteries and confiscated their property, which he used for building and maintaining schools and hospitals. Not only did he emancipate the serfs, but granted them full ownership of the lands they cultivated. He also took measures for the development of industry by a rigid protectionist system, and of trade by suitable measures. Joseph II. has been called the Enlightened, and his policy has been named Josephinism. It has often been noticed that every one of the measures introduced by the French Revolution were first tried by Joseph II. When we take into consideration the homogeneous state of France in 1789 with the heterogeneous mixture of the peoples of Austria, we will realize what a tremendous revolution Joseph II. tried to introduce.

himself died suddenly early in March, 1792, leaving to his son Francis II. the heritage of the most formidable struggle in which Austria was ever engaged. A month later France declared war on Austria.

In the course of the great events that saw the meteoric rise of Napoleon Austria played a leading and conspicuous part. In this gigantic struggle the House of Austria became again the principal enemy that Napoleon endeavoured to crush. The events of this period are fully narrated in several chapters of this work. We will, therefore, confine our attention here only to those events and changes which have specially affected Austria. Such was the Treaty of Campo-Formio (October, 1797) by which Austria definitely lost Belgium, but obtained Istria, Dalmatia, and the whole of Venice.

The future campaigns of Austria against Napoleon which resulted in the Treaty of Lunéville (February, 1801), produced the virtual destruction of the Holy Roman Empire and ruined the position of the Habsburgs in Germany. One of the results of this treaty was to decide Francis II. to adopt the title of Emperor of Austria as Francis I., and to make it hereditary in his family. He took this step in order to put his ancient House on a footing of equality with the other ruling dynasties of Europe, and especially with that of Napoleon. On the 14th of May, 1804, Napoleon was proclaimed Emperor of the French ; on the 10th of August of the same year Francis I. adopted his new title. In the proclamation issued on that occasion Francis said : " At the same time we declare that each one of our kingdoms, our principalities, and our provinces shall nevertheless preserve its title, constitution, and privileges." That is why the Emperor of Austria bears also a great number of other titles, such as King of Hungary, King of Bohemia, Archduke of Austria, Count of Tirol, and many more.

During the campaign of 1805 Napoleon entered Vienna, and after his great victory of Austerlitz (December 2nd, 1805), Austria signed the Treaty of Pressburg, by which she lost Tirol, Venice, Istria and Dalmatia. When a little later Napoleon established in Germany the Confederation of the Rhine, which broke the unity of Germany, Francis formally resigned the Crown of Emperor of the Holy Roman



*From the painting]*

*[By Scholtz.*

## ASSASSINATION OF WALLENSTEIN.

Wallenstein was a typical product of the great struggle between Catholics and Protestants which is known as the Thirty Years' War. Though his principal belief, religious or otherwise, was in his star, his military successes as commander of the Imperialists soon made him the Catholic champion. The title of defender of the faith, however, did not satisfy his unmeasured ambition. As the Emperor Ferdinand II. was unwilling to meet his claims he intrigued with the Protestants. Ferdinand outlawed him, and before he could escape to the Swedes he was assassinated in 1634 as the result of a plot of his own officers.

Empire (1806). And the sceptre of Charlemagne fell thus from the hands of the family which had held it almost without interruption since 1438.

In 1809 Austria again declared war against Napoleon. Napoleon entered Vienna for the second time. In this campaign the Austrians, under the leadership of the Archduke Charles, gained against Napoleon the Battle of Aspern (May 22nd, 1809), and Napoleon was obliged to own that he had at last found a rival worthy of him. The Battle of Aspern is regarded in Austria as the greatest victory gained since the Battles of Zenta and Kolin. A few weeks later Napoleon avenged Aspern by his victory of Wagram. By the Treaty of Vienna (1809) Austria lost her coast provinces, gave up other provinces, and was reduced to the rank of a second-class Power. But the most painful of the conditions imposed was the abandonment of the Tirol to Bavaria. But the faithful Tirolese continued their struggle under Andreas Hofer, one of the greatest national heroes in Austrian history. Andreas Hofer was captured in 1810, brought to Mantua, and shot after a trial by court-martial.

Metternich was now appointed at the head of affairs, and he started a policy of patience and wise moderation in order to enable Austria to reconstruct her finances and to reorganize her army. After so many exhausting wars and the heavy indemnities she had to pay, the economic and financial position of the country was at its lowest ebb.

From 1809 until the disastrous campaign of Napoleon in Russia Austria was compelled to be his ally. Austria did not enter at the beginning the alliance between



WALLENSTEIN.

Wallenstein's successes in the field were due not merely to great tactical skill but to that perfect control of his men which he attained by strenuous discipline and personal magnetism. At first he consecrated his victories to the service of the Emperor and the Catholic cause, but when the death of Gustavus Adolphus left him without a rival in 1632 his ambitions turned towards founding a great principality of his own.

Russia and Prussia, but in August, 1813, she decided to join the allies. By this decision the fall of Napoleon was assured. The command of the allied armies was given to the Austrian general, Prince Carl Schwarzenberg, and his principal staff-officer was Joseph Radetzky. The Battle of Leipzig, the campaign of 1814 in France, and the entry of the Allies into Paris followed in quick succession.

The choice of Vienna as the meeting-place of the congress which was to decide the new configuration of Europe was the recognition of the leading part played by Austria and her armies, as well as of the military skill of her commander-in-chief and of the clever diplomacy of Metternich.

Let us see now the result of the long struggle in which Francis I. was engaged for nearly a quarter of a century. No Austrian ruler had ever passed through such a series of reverses and triumphs as he did. Four times he had been obliged to accept a humiliating peace from the hands of the conqueror. Twice he had seen him enter his capital. He had lost in succession several provinces, even amongst the hereditary lands, and he had to lay down that Imperial Crown which had been for centuries the ornament and the glory of his House. But after the Treaty of Vienna he found himself ruler over a compact empire, with better boundaries than it possessed before it entered the struggle, and with an army and a diplomatic body which excited the admiration of Europe. He had again the hegemony both in Germany and Italy. In 1815 his empire occupied a compact territory of two hundred and seventy-seven thousand six hundred square miles with a population of twenty-eight millions, instead of the twenty-four millions spread between the North Sea and the Danube that he ruled in 1792. The Netherlands and the scattered possessions on the Rhine, which he abandoned, were rather a source of weakness



PRINCESS ANNE OF AUSTRIA.

[By the Photochrom Co. Ltd., London.

Princess Anne of Austria, who was the eldest daughter of Philip III. of Spain, was born in 1601. Through her father, a grandson of Charles V., Emperor of Germany, she received a title as Anne of Austria. She married Louis XIII. of France in 1615, but the marriage proved an unhappy one.





[From "*Oesterreichisch-Ungarische Monarchie in Wort und Bild*," Vienna.

Cut glass of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. (Bohemian industry.)

than of strength. In addition to the hereditary lands, Hungary, Bohemia, and Galicia, he gained Dalmatia and the provinces on the Adriatic Sea, as well as the Kingdom of Lombardy and Venice.

But besides the consolidation and increase of its territory, Austria gained another result that was to be of the greatest assistance to her in the near future. This was the creation of an army such as she had never possessed before. During the long struggle with Napoleon a new spirit of discipline and a brotherhood in arms had sprung up and inspired the soldiers drawn from its numerous races. This army was instrumental in spreading ideas of fidelity to the common flag and to the monarchical principle which have given the House of Austria new vigour.

The period following the Congress of Vienna was one of steady reaction, in which the European rulers united in the common effort of resisting the ideas proclaimed by the French Revolution of 1789. The "Holy Alliance" between the Emperor of Russia, the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia was one of its manifestations. Metternich set himself the task of imposing that policy of stability with which his name is associated, and to police and manage the affairs of Europe by means of congresses in which Austria should have the leading part. In order to play this grand rôle in European politics it was necessary that Austria should give to Europe the impression of fixed adherence to the most extreme conservative views. And Austria stood, indeed, at the head of reaction in Europe. She regarded it as her task to hinder the triumph of liberal principles or of national aspirations in Germany, Italy, the Balkan Peninsula and everywhere else.

In Austria itself absolutism developed strongly. A greatly centralized bureaucratic system was introduced which pursued a strong policy of Germanization. A rigid censorship of the Press and of books was enforced. Public instruction was placed entirely in the hands of the clergy and, above all, an extensive system of secret police watched over the life of the people. The army was used by the government to stifle all national manifestations. For this purpose Hungarian troops were used in Italy, Italian regiments garrisoned Galicia, Poles occupied Austria, and Germans were stationed in Hungary.

This policy was in accordance with the ideas of Francis I. This Emperor shared to the full the autocratic temper, the narrow-mindedness and the religious and intellectual obscurantism of the Habsburgs.

But, curiously enough, the government allowed and up to a certain extent encouraged the movements for the revival of the national language and literature in Bohemia and in the southern Slav provinces, which sprang up as the result of the reforms of Joseph II. This linguistic revival was one of the strongest causes of the revival of the spirit of nationality. And in the domain of politics the diets and



*From the painting]*

MARIA THERESA.

*[By Wilhelm Camphausen.*

Maria Theresa was perhaps the most successful woman ruler in history. She gained the affection of her subjects by the courage with which she faced the ring of foes who disputed her succession in 1740. She retained that affection by exercising a wise and tolerant, if autocratic rule. Her government was in truth the perfect example of the "benevolent despotism" which is usually a fiction of historical theorists.

estates of the various provinces were again re-established, but their function was merely to register the imperial decrees. The economic situation was also very bad. Agriculture languished on account of the feudal privileges of the landlords. Trade suffered under a high protective system of duties both at the frontier and in the interior. Taxation was exceedingly heavy, and the state was twice bankrupt; while the lavish issue of paper money lowered still more the economic situation of the country.

Francis I. died in 1835, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand I., who was a weak man both physically and mentally. Metternich became now still more powerful. But in spite of the continuation of the same system of government, the peoples of Austria were preparing themselves for political freedom

and for the realization of their national aspirations. Signs of the storm which broke out with such violence in 1848 were slowly accumulating in the various dominions of the Habsburgs.

In other respects Metternich did not give up the pretensions of the House of Habsburg in Germany, although when in 1815 Austria abandoned Belgium and permitted the establishment of Prussia in the Rhine provinces, she abdicated to that Power the rôle of protector of Germany against France. His desire to maintain the Italian provinces, where the rule of Austria was detested, was another mistake which cost the Monarchy dear. This policy, coupled with his internal reactionary policy, prevented Austria from playing her historic rôle in the development of the Eastern Question, which became very acute during the first decades of the nineteenth century. Her former struggles against the Turks, her geographical situation, and her possession of so many Slavs, akin in race to the inhabitants of the Balkan Peninsula, all seemed to point to Austria as the future natural heir of the Turkish territories in



*From the painting]*

*[By Siegmund v. Altmann.]*

#### GENERAL LOUDON ON THE BATTLE-FIELD OF KUNERSDORF, 1759.

General Ernst Gideon Loudon was born in 1717 at Tootzen, in Livonia. His family, which was of Scottish origin, had lived in the country since about 1400. Loudon first came into prominence, as a soldier of fortune, during the Seven Years' War. The Empress Maria Theresa showed him much favour, giving him an estate and ennobling him. He was created a Field-Marshal of the Austrian army in 1778.

Europe at the break-up of the Turkish Empire. But neither the struggles for liberty of the Serbs nor those of the Greeks met with the support of Metternich. Russia, her great rival in the East, championed the cause of the Christian populations in the Balkans, and one of the results of her successful war against Turkey, which ended in the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), was that she established her influence over the Danubian Provinces, the present Rumania. This placed the mouths of the Danube in her hands, an event of great political and commercial importance to Austria.

The revolution which broke out in February, 1848, in Paris fanned into a blaze the smouldering fire of discontent among the peoples of Austria. The revolution which broke out here threatened to shatter to its foundation the rotten structure of the Habsburg Monarchy, and its end, so often predicted, seemed near at hand. What saved it from extinction was, first, the prestige of the imperial tradition which



*From the painting]*

#### THE BATTLE OF NEERWINDEN.

*[By J. H. Geiger*

The first military exploit of the French Republic was the invasion of Belgium, then known as the Austrian Netherlands, where the populace was openly sympathetic to revolutionary doctrines. On the 18th March, 1793, at Neerwinden, near Liège, the French under Dumouriez, were defeated by the Allies under the Prince of Coburg, who decorated the Archduke Charles of Austria on the battle-field for his conspicuous services during the day.

*From the painting]**[By G. Hahl.*

## JOSEPH II. VISITING AN INFIRMARY.

Joseph was essentially a friend of the poor, the weak and the sick. His charitable nature was the direct outcome of the dreamy idealism which set him on the path of reform. The eighteenth century, however, had no room for a sentimentalist and he was never understood. "Here lies a sovereign who, with the best intentions, failed in everything he undertook," he said of himself pathetically just before he died.

was still attached to its dynasty and, secondly, the army, with its spirit of fidelity to the monarchy gained during the long Napoleonic Wars. But another factor, perhaps as important, was the opposite interests and the rivalries between the peoples of this heterogeneous empire. The Imperial Government mastered the revolution by playing one race against the other with complete success. Popular risings broke out in quick succession at Budapest, Vienna, Prague, Agram, Venice, Milan and Lemberg. The revolt in Hungary will be treated more fully in the chapter on the Hungarians.

On the 11th of March the students and artisans of Vienna demanded the grant of a liberal constitution. Two days later the people asked for the resignation of the hated Metternich. He escaped from Vienna and went to England. His fall was the signal for the revolt in all the other parts of the Empire, as well as in Germany. The Government of Vienna promised to satisfy all the demands which were made by the diets of the various provinces of the Empire. It could not do otherwise, for the army was occupied in crushing the revolt in Italy, and until that campaign was decided the fate of the Empire hung in the balance. During several months there was no central government in existence, and Vienna was at the mercy of a committee of students and of German extremists. The Emperor had to fly twice from his capital during that period.

Marshal Radetzky won in Italy the Battle of Custozza (July 25th, 1848), and a few days later had reoccupied the whole of Lombardy.

"Austria is to be found in thy camp alone,  
We others are but lonely ruins,"

said the Viennese poet Grillparzer in a celebrated poem dedicated to Radetzky. In the meantime the rising at Prague was suppressed by Prince Windischgrätz (June 16th). These victories were hailed by the revolutionists at Vienna as victories for Germanism, and this fact drove the Bohemians, the Southern

Slavs, and the Rumanians on the side of the Imperial Government. They saw in the demands and in the triumph of the German revolutionists at Vienna and of the Hungarian revolutionists at Budapest the greatest danger to their national aspirations. By playing off the Ruthenians in Galicia against the Poles the rising in this province was also subdued. Finally the revolution in Vienna was crushed by the army of Prince Windischgrätz, who captured the city (October 31st, 1848) after a bombardment of three days. Except in Hungary the Revolution was now subdued everywhere.

A strong government, under the presidency of Prince Felix Schwarzenberg, "the soldier statesman," who was a staunch friend of absolutism, was now appointed. The new cabinet, however, decided in favour of constitutional government, and in a proclamation issued on November 27th, he announced that the preservation of Austria as a united state is necessary both for Germany and for the balance of power in Europe. The events in Germany in 1848 are greatly intermingled with those occurring in Austria at the time. A few days afterwards, on the 2nd of December, the Emperor Ferdinand abdicated in favour of his nephew, Francis Joseph, the reigning monarch, who was only eighteen years old.

Francis Joseph, when he ascended the throne, declared himself a constitutional monarch. In his proclamation at his accession he said: "Firmly determined to preserve undimmed the lustre of our Crown, but prepared to share our rights with the representatives of our peoples, we trust that with God's aid, and in common with our peoples, we shall succeed in uniting all the countries and races of the Monarchy in one compact state."

On the 4th of March the Emperor published the constitution for the whole of his monarchy, "one and indivisible." It did not meet with the approval either of the Bohemians, Southern Slavs, or Hungarians. The Hungarians, in fact, declared their complete independence. Francis Joseph, with the aid of Russian armies sent by Tsar Nicholas, defeated the Hungarians, and the capitulation of Világos (August 13th, 1849) ended the Hungarian revolution. Austria was also able to defeat the attempt of

Prussia to become the leader in the German Confederation, and the House of Habsburg overcame all the dangers with which it was threatened during the last two years.

Finally, in 1851, Schwarzenberg suppressed the constitution, and Austria became again an absolutist state. For the next ten years the various races groaned under the yoke of one of the worst reactionary governments of modern times. Its policy was to centralize all the



FRANCIS I.

Francis I., Holy Roman Emperor and Grand Duke of Tuscany, was the son of Leopold Joseph, Duke of Lorraine and his wife Elizabeth Charlotte, daughter of Philip, Duke of Orleans. He was brought up at Vienna, with Maria Theresa of Austria, whom he married in 1736. On her accession in 1740 Francis became co-regent to the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria. Through the influence of his wife he was elected Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in 1745 in succession to Charles VII. He died suddenly in 1765.

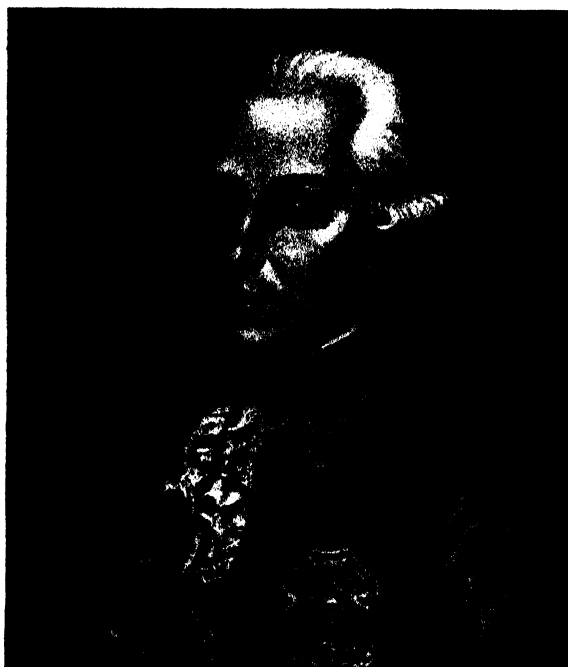


PRINCE EUGENE OF SAVOY.

Eugene of Savoy, born in 1663, gained a great reputation as a military leader even in an age which was thrilled by the exploits of the brilliant English general, Marlborough. He first offered his services to Louis XIV. of France, who declined them. Eugene then turned to Austria, and at the head of the armies of that country inflicted many a severe defeat on the French. Louis XIV. even attempted to bribe him to return to his service, but Eugene's resentment was implacable. He was not less successful against the Turks than against the French.

provinces, to deprive them of any vestige of self-government, and to Germanize all the other races. True to the Habsburg tradition, the government called to its aid the Roman Catholic Church, and concluded with the Pope the famous Concordat of 1855. It put that faith in a privileged position, gave to the bishops complete control over education, and granted the clergy other extensive privileges. Several events in the European situation helped to break this régime. These were the reopening of the Eastern Question, the war with Italy in 1859, and the war with Prussia in 1866.

We have seen before that the possession of the Danubian Principalities and the free navigation of the Danube up to its mouth was of the utmost importance for Austria. These considerations outweighed in the minds of the Austrian statesmen the sense of gratitude for the aid which Russia gave the Monarchy in 1849. When the Crimean War broke out, Austria entered into an agreement with France and England to defend the Danubian Principalities against Russia. Austria did not actually take part in the war but it was the ultimatum sent by her to Russia which determined the Tsar to sign the Treaty of Paris



JOSEPH II

The Emperor Joseph II., finding his dominions wasted by war and burdened with debt, set himself to introduce reforms. Unhappily his beneficent measures aroused resentment which resulted in revolt, and disappointment brought Joseph to an early grave in 1790.



FRANCIS II. (1768-1835).

Was the son of Leopold II., Grand Duke of Tuscany, afterwards Emperor. He was the last of the Roman Emperors and the first of the Austrian as Francis I. He was denounced as a tyrant for his strong tendency to take the government into his own hands.

(March 30th, 1856). By this treaty Austria had secured the settlement of the Eastern Question in her favour, but she was left without friends or allies. The participation of Sardinia in the war at the side of France and England caused her great alarm, and at the Congress of Paris Cavour brought up the Italian question and the rule of Austria in the peninsula, which was the greatest obstacle for the realization of the unification of Italy. Soon afterwards Napoleon, who was anxious to weaken the power of Austria, concluded an alliance with Sardinia. War between these Powers broke out in 1859. Austria was defeated at Magenta, and later at Solferino (June 23rd), and Napoleon III. arranged an interview with the Emperor Francis Joseph at Villafranca, where an armistice was concluded. As a result of the war Austria gave up all her possessions in Italy except Venice.

This defeat compelled the government to conciliate public opinion at home by granting constitutional concessions. In 1861 the Emperor granted a constitution, which introduced parliamentary government in Austria. But the provisions of this constitution did not satisfy the various nationalities, and Hungary, Venice, Croatia, and Transylvania refused to send deputies to the parliament sitting at Vienna.



*From the painting]*

#### CHARGE OF THE AUSTRIAN DRAGOONS AT THE BATTLE OF KOLIN.

*[By L. Koch*

The Battle of Kolin, fought on June 18th, 1757, was a victory of superior Austrian numbers over the Prussians and their wily commander, Frederick the Great. The Austrian position was naturally strong, and the Prussians hurled themselves vainly against it in a series of desperate frontal attacks. Their discomfiture was completed by a brilliant charge of the Austrian dragoons. The immediate result of the defeat was to compel the Prussians to withdraw entirely from Bohemia.





From the painting]

[By Von Hlans.

## ENTRY OF PRINCE EUGENE INTO BELGRADE.

When Austria renewed the war with Turkey in 1716 Prince Eugene took the field with an army of sixty thousand men and immediately routed one hundred and fifty thousand Turks at Peterwardein. He followed up this success with the capture of Temesvar, and in 1717 stormed Belgrade after a month's siege. During the attack he received a wound, said to be his thirteenth. The loss of Belgrade was so severe a blow to the Turks that they were glad to sue for peace.

Germany, Austria set herself the task of making a nation out of the various nationalities living in her dominions. As long as she held her position in Germany such a task was hopeless. The Germans were regarded as the dominant race, and Germanism was so far the basis of the Austrian system of government. But with the growth of the idea of German unity, Germanism had established a new ideal, that of a united Germany, whose centre of gravity lay beyond the confines of Austria. This ideal was naturally opposed to the aspirations of the other races, and Austria saw that these aspirations must now be reconciled. Baron Beust, a leading statesman of Saxony, well known for his opposition to Bismarck, was entrusted now by the Emperor with the task of giving the Empire its new shape. Beust decided to reconcile first the Hungarians, and their principal demands were granted by the so-called Agreement or Compromise of 1867, which established the Dual Monarchy as it exists now. The idea of a centralized Empire broke down completely and had to be replaced by a dualism. The principle underlying this agreement was to divide the Empire into two portions, and to give the hegemony in one portion to the Germans, and in the other to the Hungarians. In both portions the

Meanwhile Bismarck was working to place Prussia at the head of the German Confederation, and he saw that the matter could be decided only by the elimination of Austria altogether from Germany. The quarrel about the Schleswig-Holstein question gave him the pretext for settling this matter by force of arms. In 1866, Prussia, in alliance with Italy, declared war. In a short campaign of seven weeks Austria was completely defeated at Sadowa or Königgrätz (July 3rd). In Italy the Austrian arms were successful at the Battle of Custozza, while Admiral Tegethoff gained the naval victory off Lissa. At the conclusion of peace Austria had to give up Venice and the long-established Habsburg domination in Italy ceased. By the Treaty of Prague, concluded with Prussia the Emperor of Austria gave up the position which his ancestors held for so many centuries in Germany. The long struggle for the hegemony in Germany between the Habsburgs and the Hohenzollerns, begun by Frederick the Great, ended in the victory of the Hohenzollerns.

The result of this war was the beginning of a new era both in the internal organization and in the foreign policy of the Empire. Finally excluded from Italy and

Slavs and the other nationalities were to be placed in a position of political inferiority. By a cruel irony of fate the Germans and the Hungarians, who in 1848 tried to dismember the Habsburg Monarchy, became now the ruling races, while the Slavs and the Rumanians who remained faithful to the ruling dynasty were sacrificed.

We have mentioned several times the racial rivalries and the struggle of the nationalities ; it is now time to give a few details on this point. This becomes still more necessary, as the whole policy, both internal and external, of the Monarchy during the last half century is dominated by this question, and without such knowledge an intelligent understanding of this policy is not possible.

No country in Europe, except Russia, presents such a medley of races, nationalities, languages and religions as the dominions under the sceptre of the House of Habsburg. The three principal races of Europe—the German, the Slav, and the Latin races, are all represented here, while the Turanian race is represented by the Hungarians. Taking Austria and Hungary together, with its population of over 51,350,000, the Slav race is far the most numerous, comprising nearly 24,000,000 ; while of the two dominant races, the Germans number 12,000,000, and the Hungarians 10,000,000. Austria itself, which is considered a Germanic Power, has only 10,000,000 Germans out of a population of 28,500,000. With the exception of 750,000 Italians and 275,000 Rumanians, the remainder of the population belongs to the Slav race. But, geographically, the Slavs are divided by a solid wedge of Germans, Hungarians and Rumanians into two groups : the Northern Slavs and the Southern Slavs. The Slavs are, besides, divided into a great number of nationalities differing from each other in language, religion, historical traditions, national rivalries, and, we may say, future aspirations. The North Slavs are divided into Czechs or Bohemians and Poles, who are Roman Catholics, and the Ruthenians, who are Greek Catholics. The Southern Slavs are divided into Slovenes and Croatians, who are Roman Catholics, and Serbians, who are Greek Orthodox. Besides the difference in religion, there is also great political enmity between the Poles and Ruthenians.



*From the painting]*

*[By G. Legeune.*

## THE BATTLE OF MARENGO.

June 14th, 1800, was a sad day for Austria, witnessing, as it did, her disastrous defeat at Marengo, which virtually forced her to the humiliating Peace of Luneville. Napoleon's plan of campaign which culminated in this battle is considered a masterpiece of strategy, but his tactical dispositions on the field itself were faulty, and the Austrians would have won the day had it not been for the timely arrival of a fresh French division and a brilliant charge by Kellermann's heavy cavalry.

The distribution of these various nationalities is another important point, for, with the exception of the Hungarians and the Czechs who are all confined within the Monarchy, Austria-Hungary contains only part of other nations. And these nations live in compact groups stretching to the frontiers, beyond which live their own kinsmen. Thus the Germans are in direct contact with Germany, the Italians in the Trentino and Istria with Italy, the Serbians in Croatia, Slavonia and Bosnia with Serbia, the Rumanians in Transylvania and Bukovina with Rumania ; and the Ruthenians and the Poles in Galicia with their own co-nationals in Russia. It is easy to understand the centrifugal forces which are at play in the Monarchy, and how the great movements of Pan-Germanism and Pan-Slavism, without considering other smaller national movements, affect the aspirations of the peoples and the internal and foreign policy of the government.

We must also remember that the nineteenth century was the century of nationalities, and that Austria



FRENCH ENTRY INTO VIENNA, 1805.

The fortunes of Austria reached their lowest ebb when General Mack with a large army surrendered to Napoleon at Ulm on October 20th, 1805. The immediate effect of the victory was to lay Bavaria and Austria open to the French advance, and Napoleon entered Vienna in triumph. For the first time for centuries the capital of the Habsburgs was profaned by an invader.

had the misfortune to see established on her borders strong national states, such as a united Germany and a united Italy, an independent Serbia, and an independent Rumania.

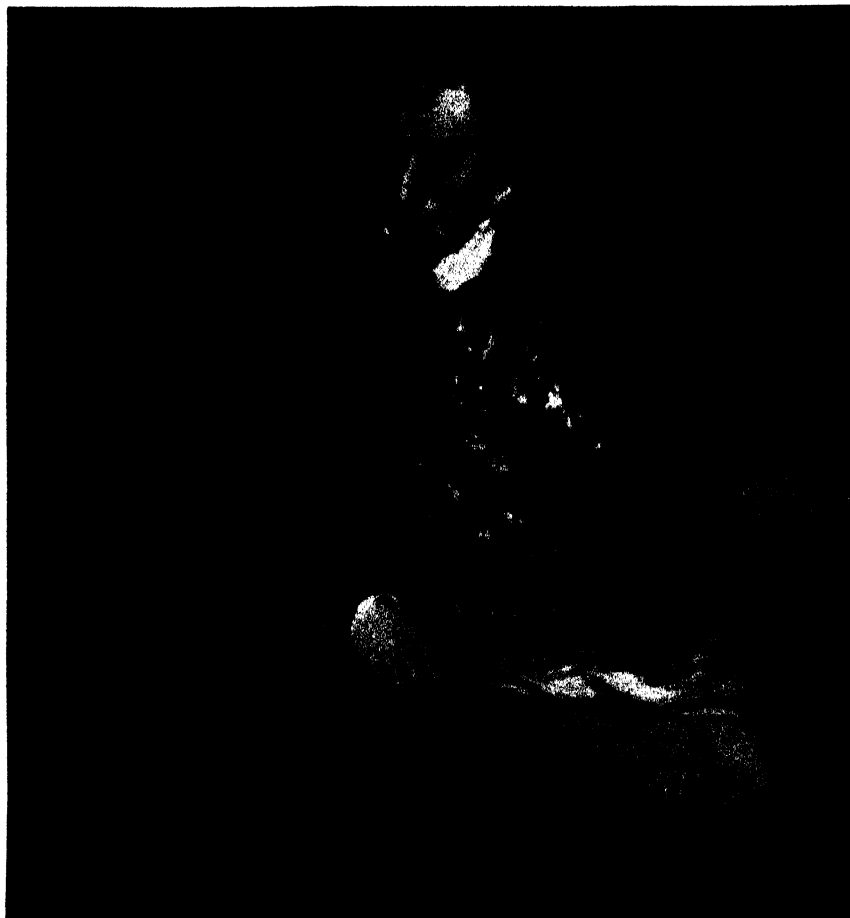
In Austria itself a new constitution was granted after the compromise with Hungary had been settled, and parliamentary government was introduced. But the racial jealousies and struggles went on continuously, and the work both of the parliament and of the government was greatly impeded. The struggle was most acute between the Czechs and the Germans in the north, and between the Slavs, the Italians and the Germans in the south. The struggle was mainly concentrated upon the question of language, each nationality demanding that its language should be recognized as the official language in administration, justice, schools, and so on, in the various provinces where each of them was in the majority. The Germans and the government maintained that German should remain the official language throughout the Empire. The Czechs, besides, asked for the full restoration of Bohemia as a kingdom.

*From the painting*

### NAPOLEON AND FRANCIS II. AFTER AUSTERLITZ.

*[By Baron Antoine Jean Gros.]*

At Austerlitz, on December 2nd, 1805, Napoleon won the most dazzling and complete of his victories over the combined armies of Austria and Russia. The Allies lost half their men and all their guns, and the Emperor Francis II., seeing that further resistance was hopeless, made overtures for peace at once. Napoleon, resolved to exact the uttermost advantage of his victory, compelled him to sign the humiliating Treaty of Presburg and pay an indemnity of 100,000,000 francs.



Prince Metternich-Winneburg (1773-1859), the great Austrian statesman and diplomatist, was born at Coblenz. In 1809, as Austrian Foreign Minister, he negotiated the marriage of Marie Louise of Austria with Napoleon, and later he took a very prominent part in the Congress of Vienna. He was of an autocratic and despotic disposition.

They demanded that the Emperor should be crowned as King of Bohemia, and that Bohemia should have in the Monarchy the same position as Hungary. This would have meant the establishment of trialism instead of the existing dualism. The Germans, who had been accustomed for such a long time to rule, strenuously opposed these demands. But the Austrian statesmen realized that the Slav nationalities must be satisfied, and under Count Taaffe, a statesman of Irish descent, who was at the head of affairs from 1879 to 1893, many of the demands of the Slavs as regards their national language, both in school and in the administration, have been granted. The movement was crowned by the foundation of a Polish University at Lemberg and a Czech University at Prague in 1882.

Meantime the parliamentary franchise was broadened, and the Slavs who increased in numbers, in economic power, and in education asserted more and more their national individuality. But the struggle, especially between the Germans and the Czechs, has continued with great violence to the present time. A further step to settle the racial question was taken at the beginning of this century by the introduction of universal suffrage. This measure was introduced and carried through by the direct intervention of the Emperor, who has thus shown his confidence in the peoples under his sceptre. It constitutes the most important step for the building up of a democratic Austria, where all races and nationalities should be on an equal footing. During the last two decades the government has also introduced a great number of measures of social legislation, in order to improve the social and economic conditions of the labouring classes. For Austria, during the second part of the reign of Francis Joseph, has made wonderful economic progress. The rich natural resources of the country have been developed, and agriculture, mining and industry have made enormous strides. And the government did all in its power to help on this economic development by building railways and canals, by tariff legislation, and similar suitable measures. It was hoped that the political freedom obtained by universal suffrage coupled with the social legislation for the amelioration of the condition of the people would put an end to the unending racial conflicts. This hope has not yet been realized. But the absolutist Austria of 1848, when Francis Joseph ascended the throne, is being transformed into a democratic state. A great share in the work of this transformation is due to the labours of the aged Emperor, who has ruled the Empire for over sixty-six years. And to-day the love of his subjects for their venerable monarch

is greater than that enjoyed by any other Habsburg ruler, even amongst peoples who have been kept together by their loyalty to the ruling dynasty.

After 1867, and especially after the victory of Prussia in 1870, the foreign policy of Austria underwent a great change. Driven from Germany and Italy, she realized that her proper sphere of activity is in the East, and more especially in the Balkan Peninsula. This policy was definitely inaugurated when Beust resigned in 1871, and was replaced by Count Andrassy, a Hungarian. But in the Balkans she met her old rival Russia. We may say that the tendency has generally been to adjust the differences between them by compromise and peaceful means. Another cardinal point of Austria's foreign policy has been first a *rapprochement*, in 1872, and then an alliance, in 1879, with Germany. In 1882 this alliance was joined by Italy, and was transformed into the Triple Alliance, which became such an important and determining factor in the politics of Europe.

At the meeting of the Emperor Francis Joseph with the Emperor of Germany in 1872 the Tsar of Russia was also present, and a friendly understanding with Russia was established. But the revolt of Bosnia and Herzegovina against the Turks in 1874 immediately affected Austria. The sympathies of her Slav peoples were with the insurgents, while the government saw danger in the creation of new Slav states on the southern frontier of the Empire, or in the increase of Russian influence in the Balkan Peninsula. A secret agreement was arrived at between Russia and Austria in 1877, by which Russia undertook not to take any measures which would injure Austrian interests. The Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78 followed, when the victorious Russian armies marched to the very gates of Constantinople. Turkey was compelled to sign the Treaty of San Stefano (March, 1878). This treaty violated the engagements undertaken by Russia, and caused great alarm amongst those Powers who were opposing Russian ambitions in the Near East. Amongst these Powers was England, and the demand made by Count Andrassy that the matter should be settled by a European Congress was finally adopted. The Congress of Berlin,



From the painting

THE BATTLE OF ASPERN.

[By Von Blaes.]

At Aspern, on the 21st and 22nd of May, 1809, the Austrians surprised Europe, and perhaps themselves, by inflicting a severe defeat on a superior force of the French commanded by Napoleon himself. Had the Archduke Charles shown anything of the vigour of his great antagonist it is probable that the French army would have been destroyed. As it was the Austrian general was afraid of his success, his troops were exhausted and Napoleon was able to withdraw his decimated forces across the Danube.

where Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury played such a prominent part, followed. By the Treaty of Berlin (July, 1878), Austria was authorized to undertake the occupation and administration of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. It was agreed that the occupation should be only provisional, and should not prejudice the sovereign rights of the Sultan of Turkey over these provinces. Austria was also permitted to place troops in the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar, a district of great strategic importance, which separated Serbia from Montenegro, and through which the communication between Bosnia and Salonica, the great port on the Aegean Sea, passed.

By the occupation of these provinces Austria became a Balkan Power, and her policy has since been to take a more active part in the political and economic development of the Balkan States. She set to



*From the painting]*

#### THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA.

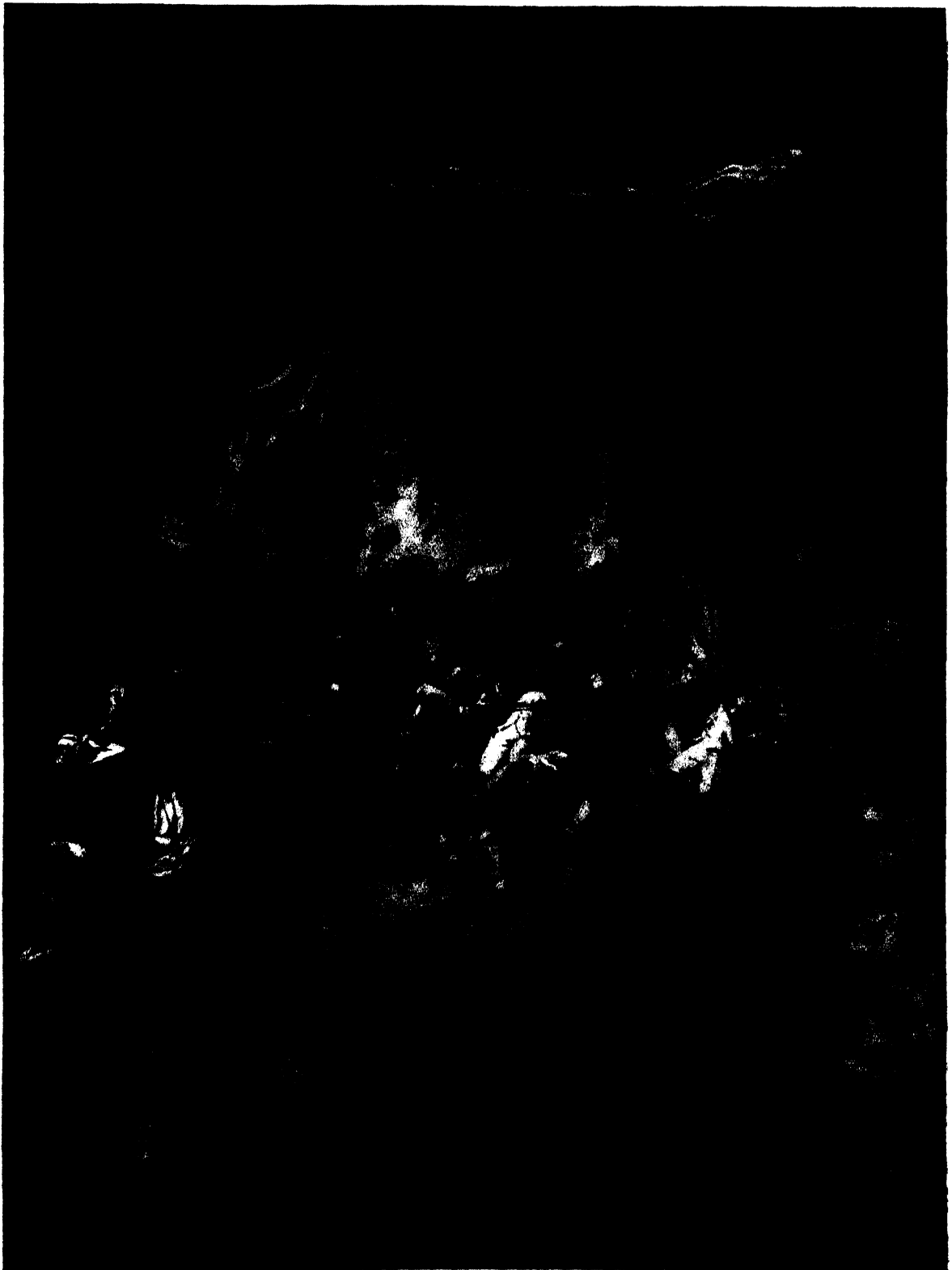
*[By J. B. Leakey.]*

The great Congress of Vienna, held in 1814-15, assembled to readjust the political questions arising out of the Napoleonic Wars. Great Britain, Austria, Russia and Prussia were allied against France, but on the defeat of Napoleon France agreed by the first Treaty of Paris to hand over the disposal of all countries freed from French suzerainty to the Allies.

work to build here railways, to regulate the navigation of the Danube, and to push her trade by commercial treaties with the various states.

The relations between Austria and Russia became very strained during the Serbo-Bulgarian War of 1885. In the face of subsequent events, it is curious that it was Austria that saved Serbia from the victorious armies of Bulgaria. Austria also declared that she would not allow Russia to interfere with the independence of Bulgaria. During the crisis of 1886 and 1887, following the election of Ferdinand of Coburg as Prince of Bulgaria, war seemed at one time inevitable between the two empires, but the storm passed. Since the advent of the Karageorgevitch dynasty to the throne of Serbia in 1903 the relations with Serbia have become more and more strained.

The unrest in the European provinces of Turkey in Europe threatened to open the Eastern Question, and to bring again into acute conflict the rival interests of Russia and Austria. In 1903 an agreement was arrived at between these two Powers, and a programme of reforms for Macedonia arranged, which became known as the Mürzsteg Programme, after the name of the place where the Emperor Francis Joseph



*From the painting]*

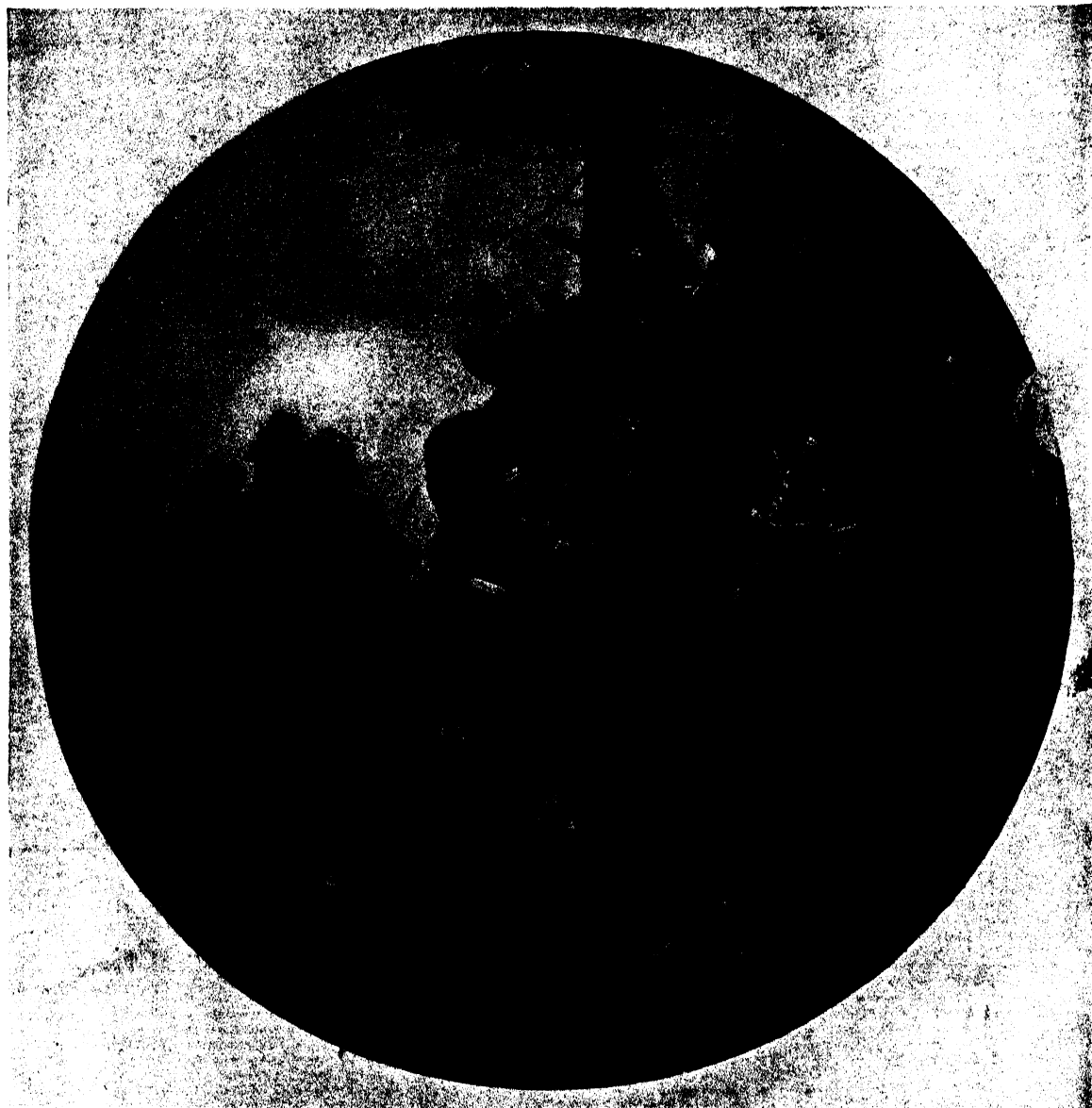
*[By C. Jordan.*

#### THE REVOLT OF THE TYROLESE, 1809.

By the Treaty of Pressburg in 1805 Napoleon compelled Austria to cede the Tyrol to Bavaria. The Tyrolese violently resented this change, and four years later rose in open revolt and, led by the great patriot, Andreas Hofer, drove the French and Bavarians from the country. Even after Napoleon's victory at Wagram forced the Austrians to withdraw their support, the Tyrolese continued the struggle until Hofer's capture by treachery put an end to their resistance.



and Tsar Nicholas met in that year. We may mention that about this time the relations with Italy also became very strained, on account of the Irredentist manifestations of the Italian people and government. War preparations were made in both countries, but the tension was relaxed and eventually cordial relations were again re-established.



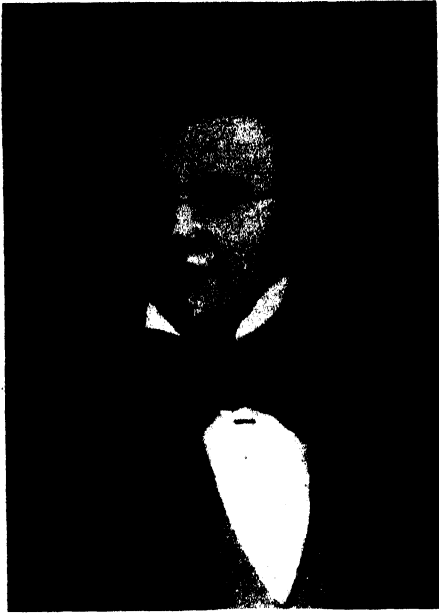
*From the painting]*

ANDREAS HOFER AT ISEL MOUNTAIN, AUGUST 13th, 1809.

*[By Von Blaas.*

Hofer, greatest of Tyrolese patriots, was the son of an innkeeper. When the Tyrolese broke into insurrection in 1809 he was put in command of one of the insurgent divisions and quickly justified his appointment by inflicting a severe defeat on the Bavarians. His successes raised him to the supreme command, and he celebrated his promotion by crushing a Franco-Bavarian army at Berg Isel on August 13th and entering Innsbruck in triumph. Napoleon then paid him the compliment of setting a price on his head. He was captured by treachery on January 27th, 1810, and executed by Napoleon's express orders.

Baron Aerenthal, who became Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs at the end of 1906, decided to take advantage of the weakness of Russia after the Russo-Japanese War, and to inaugurate a more active policy in the Balkan Peninsula. The first manifestation of the break of the agreement with Russia was when he obtained from the Sultan, at the beginning of 1908, a concession for building a railway through the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar. But later in the year an event, which changed the whole aspect of the Eastern



SCHUBERT.

Franz Schubert, born at Vienna in 1797, produced in his thirty-one years of life an immense number of musical compositions and is universally regarded as the prince of song-writers.

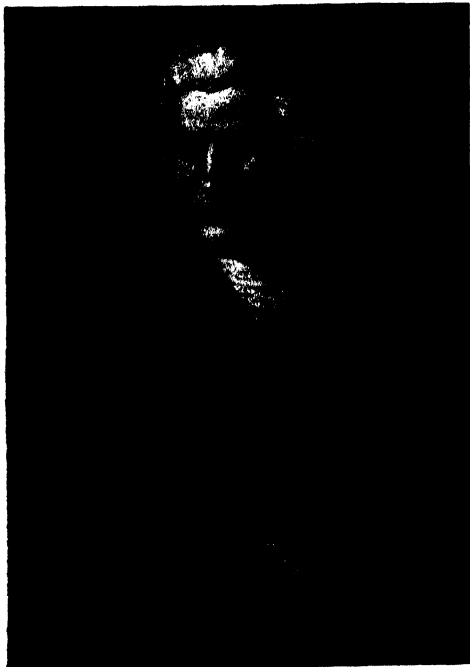
Question and was bound to produce other changes in the international situation of Europe, occurred, namely, the Young Turk Revolution. In the presence of a constitutional Turkey the position of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, nominally belonging to Turkey, but governed autocratically from Vienna, became rather irregular. Baron Aehrenthal decided to annex these provinces without first consulting the co-signatory Powers of the Berlin Treaty.

It now became clear that this violation of a great international treaty undermined one of the principal guarantees of the peace of Europe. England, France and Russia protested against this action of Austria, and Serbia threatened to go to war. Russia defended the point of view of Serbia, and a severe international crisis was the result. After five months of hard negotiations the matter was settled, and a great European war averted. It was the intervention of Germany at Petro-



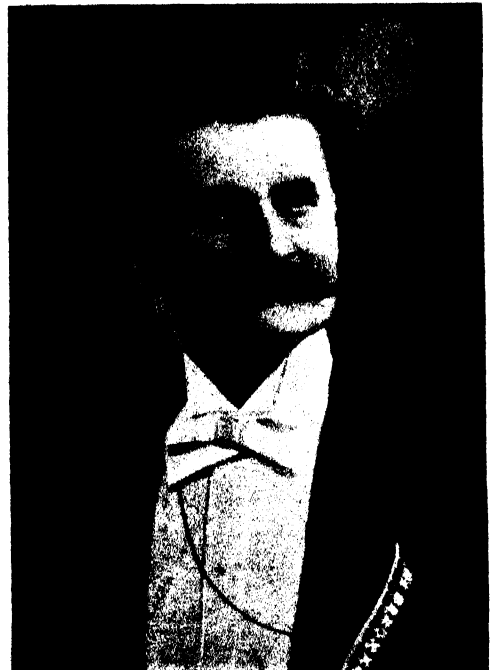
MOZART.

Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, born at Salzburg in 1756, evinced musical powers at three and performed in public at five. He only lived to the age of thirty-five, but achieved distinction in every branch of music.



HAYDN

Joseph Haydn, one of the most celebrated of Austrian musicians, was a prolific composer, and many of his works seem to have achieved immortality. He died at Vienna in 1809.



JOHANN STRAUSS.

Johann Strauss, who was born at Vienna in 1825, may be said to have raised dance music to the level of a fine art. His waltzes, which include the famous "Blue Danube," are popular all over the world.

grad, amounting practically to an ultimatum, which compelled Russia to recognize the annexation (March, 1909). This forced Serbia to submit and to renounce all her claims to compensation.

Let us examine now the causes which prompted Austria to annex these provinces, and those which made Serbia raise such a strong protest. One of the principal causes was undoubtedly the growth of the South Slav and Pan-Serbian movement, which had assumed large proportions during the last few years. The large majority of the inhabitants of Bosnia and Herzegovina belong to the Croatian and Serbian nationalities, and, geographically, they lay in the



COUNT TAAFFE.

In no country are political parties more bitterly hostile than in Austria. All the more remarkable, therefore, was Count Taaffe's feat of remaining Premier from 1879 to 1893, supported by sections of various parties which he held together by his statesmanship and moderation. Perhaps his most remarkable feat was to persuade the Czechs of Bohemia to abandon their more extreme claims and sit in the Parliament at Vienna.

centre of the lands occupied by the Southern Slavs. An agitation for the separation of these lands from Austria-Hungary was becoming stronger every day throughout the southern provinces. This agitation spread also to Bosnia and Herzegovina, where part of the population was dissatisfied with the Austrian occupation, which meant the death-knell of their aspirations of joining with their brethren in Serbia and Montenegro. The Southern Slavs had already, in 1846 and 1848, demanded the union of all these provinces into a separate kingdom under the House of Austria. This demand was now being pressed again, and the Croats asked that Croatia, Dalmatia, Bosnia



*From the painting]*

*[By Jules Rigo.*

#### THE BATTLE OF SOLFERINO.

By 1859, thanks to Cavour's ruthless exposure of Austrian rule in Italy, Austria was without a friend in Europe when war was declared on her by France and Piedmont. On June 24th the Allies defeated the Austrians at Solferino, the losses on the two sides being respectively eighteen thousand and twenty thousand. It is said that the carnage sobered Napoleon III.'s ambitions so that he was more ready to accept the proposals of peace which Prussia put forward with a veiled threat of intervention.



#### INCIDENT IN THE AUSTRO-PRUSSIAN WAR OF 1866.

The war of 1866 with Prussia was a series of unrelieved disasters for Austria. The main campaign in Bohemia, which culminated in the Austrian rout at Königgrätz (or Sadova), was virtually decided in seven days, and only political reasons urged Bismarck to spare Austria further humiliation. The reasons were Prussia's need of making a friend of Austria in view of the hostility or jealousy of other powers.

and Herzegovina should be constituted into a separate state in a federated Habsburg Monarchy, transforming it into a trialism. The Slovenes were joining them in this demand. But the Serbs, who form a large element in these provinces, although of the same race as the Croats, are separated from them by religion. The Serbs are Greek-Orthodox and are attracted towards Serbia. Their ideal is the creation of a Greater Serbia by detaching these provinces from Austria. As long as Bosnia and Herzegovina did not formally belong to the Habsburg Monarchy these hopes could be realized. But once incorporated with Austria the realization of a Greater Serbia under a national dynasty at Belgrade became almost impossible. A Greater Serbia would mean also an effective bar towards the ex-novo raised to the title of Count, was very popular. It united its peoples in a wave of patriotic pride such as has not been seen for a long time, for it foreshadowed that the Monarchy intends to resume her place in Europe as a great Power. The programme of Count Aerenthal consisted not only to assure to



COUNT AERENTHAL.

Count Aerenthal is witnessing to-day the results of the policy he inaugurated when he assumed the office of Foreign Minister of Austria-Hungary in 1906. He aimed at re-establishing Austrian prestige and securing Austrian domination in the Balkans, with a view to undermining and ousting the influence of Russia. He was responsible for the highly successful coup of 1907, when Bosnia and Herzegovina were annexed in violation of the Treaty of Berlin.

pansion of Austria in the Balkan Peninsula, and the defeat of the whole of her policy since 1870. We see, therefore, that the internal affairs of Austria, as well as her foreign ambitions, were all bound up with the success of the step Baron Aerenthal so boldly took in 1908. It also explains the great resentment of Serbia, and her stubbornness in opposing it. The annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria, and especially the manner in which it has been done, was the cause of events of great importance which were soon to manifest themselves in European politics.

In Austria-Hungary itself, in spite of the heavy cost of the military preparations and of the economic losses sustained by the boycott of Austrian goods throughout Turkey, the policy of Baron Aerenthal,



From the painting]

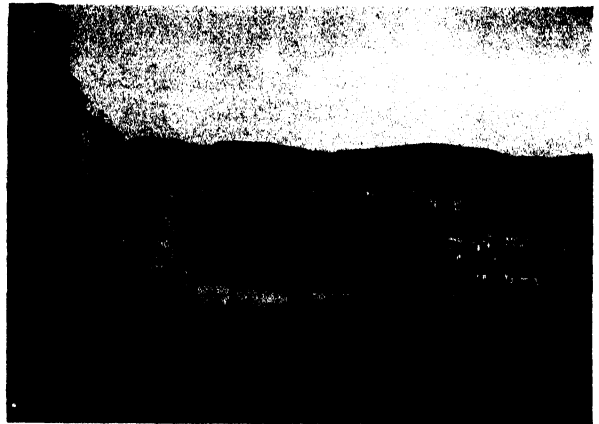
THE ARCHDUKE RUDOLPH AT A REVIEW.

[By S. L'Allemand.

The name of the Archduke Rudolph is associated with one of the most famous sensations in the histories of courts. He was found dead in his shooting-box at Mierling, near Vienna, on January 30th, 1889, but whether he died by his own hand or by that of an assassin is still a mystery. He was the only son of the Emperor Francis Joseph.



The Iron Gates of the Danube, so called by the Turks owing to submerged rocks in the rapids at this part of the river.



Franz Joseph's Quay, Vienna. This spacious quay adjoins the Ringstrasse and flanks the Danube Canal to the north.

Austria the political, and, above all, the commercial supremacy in the Balkan Peninsula, but also to secure her participation in the new phase of the Eastern Question. His policy aimed to prepare Austria



The Imperial Museum of Art at Vienna (1870-1889) contains the magnificent art collections of the Imperial family.



The Stephanie Bridge, Vienna. Leading from the north bank of the Danube to Franz Joseph's Quay, here laid out in promenades.

to share in the great economic and commercial development which was beginning in the Near East and Asia Minor. In pursuance of this aim Austria, who up to the beginning of this century possessed



Photos by]

The Volksgarten, Vienna. One of the many beautiful public gardens which adorn the city. (Planned by Francis II. in 1823.



[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.

The Franzensring, Vienna. Bordered by important buildings, it is the finest section of the Ringstrasse encircling the old city.

only a coast-defence fleet, started to build a navy strong enough to defend her interests in the Mediterranean.

The result of the Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913, which greatly increased the territory of Serbia, was a bitter disappointment to Austria. Her foreign policy was conducted by Count Leopold Berchtold,



THE EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH AS GRAND MASTER OF THE ORDER OF THE GOLDEN FLEECE.

The Order of the Golden Fleece was founded by Philip of Burgundy in 1430. When the Burgundian dominions passed to the House of Habsburg, Maximilian became Grand Master, and the office is hereditary in the Habsburg family, though as that family is now divided into a Spanish and Austrian branch and the question of precedence has never been settled, there is a separate order in each country. The badge is a golden ram.

tions hostile to Austria, the reorganization of the curriculum of the national schools and of their teaching staff, the participation of Austrian officials in judicial proceedings in Serbia, and other demands of a similar character. Serbia accepted most of the demands contained in the ultimatum, and proposed to submit the others to arbitration. Austria considered this answer unsatisfactory, and formally declared war against Serbia on July 28th. This step kindled the great European conflagration.

who in the early part of 1912 had succeeded Count Aehrenthal as Foreign Minister. After the great successes of the Balkan Allies against Turkey, Serbia hoped to obtain a free outlet on the Adriatic Sea. She demanded the coast-line between Alessio and Durazzo and an adequate hinterland. But Austria was successful in thwarting these demands, and championed the creation of a new state, namely, Albania. The opposing interests of Austria and Russia threatened several times to produce a European War before all the questions resulting from the Balkan Wars could be settled.

In June, 1914, an event which was followed by tragic consequences took place. The Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of the Habsburgs, attended the manoeuvres of the Austro-Hungarian army which were held in Bosnia. On the 28th of June he paid a visit to Serajevo, the capital of the province. While passing through the streets, accompanied by his wife, their motor-car was fired on by an assassin. Both the Archduke and his wife were killed, and the investigation of the crime alleges to have established that the plot to kill the Archduke was hatched at Belgrade.

Austria now accused the Serbian government of not taking adequate steps for stopping this agitation, and without any preliminary warning, Count Berchtold sent to Serbia, on the 23rd of July, an ultimatum, and demanded an answer in forty-eight hours. This ultimatum contained ten demands, which were directed towards the elimination from the national life of Serbia of everything which was hostile to Austria. In addition, the Serbian government was to publish in the *Official Journal* and to issue as an order of the day to the army a declaration which amounted to a strong condemnation of the Greater Serbia movement and a promise to take stringent measures for its suppression in the future. The demands contained in this ultimatum were not compatible with the sovereignty of an independent state. Amongst them were the suppression of all nationalist societies, the suppression of newspapers and publica-

# DATES OF HUNGARIAN HISTORY

DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
From the Conquest of Dacia by Trajan to the arrival of the Magyars.	<p>A.D. The Roman Emperor Trajan decisively defeats Decobalus, the King of the Dacians, and annexes Dacia to the Roman Empire. This country included the regions between the rivers Danube, Tisza and Dniester.</p> <p>105 The Goths occupy Dacia and establish here two Kingdoms, that of the Visigoths in the West and that of the Ostrogoths in the East.</p> <p>274 These regions are invaded by the Huns.</p> <p>437 Attila becomes King and the power of the Huns reaches its highest point.</p> <p>453 Death of Attila and the collapse of the power of the Huns.</p> <p>470 The Visigoths and the Gepidae become masters of the country.</p> <p>568 The Avars invade the country and establish a powerful Kingdom.</p> <p>796 Charlemagne destroys the Kingdom of the Avars.</p>
The Consolidation of the Hungarian State under the Arpád dynasty.	<p>896 The Magyars or Hungarians invade the country under their leader Arpád and permanently establish themselves here.</p> <p>900 Accession of Kresimir as Duke of Croatia.</p> <p>907 The Hungarians defeat the Germans at Pressburg. Death of Arpád.</p> <p>910 The Hungarians defeat the Germans at Lechfeld, near Augsburg.</p> <p>917 Accession of Tomislav as Duke of Croatia.</p> <p>955 The German Emperor Otto I. inflicts on the Hungarians a crushing defeat at Lechfeld. This puts a stop to their raiding expeditions in the West of Europe.</p> <p>958 Accession of Kresimir II. as Duke of Croatia.</p> <p>970 Accession of Drzislav, who becomes the first King of Croatia.</p> <p>972 Accession of Duke Geza I.</p> <p>992 Geza adopts Christianity.</p> <p>997 Accession of Stephen the Saint.</p> <p>1000 Stephen is crowned first King of Hungary with the crown sent by the Pope. Accession of Kresimir I. as King of Croatia.</p> <p>1035 Accession of Stephen I. as King of Croatia.</p> <p>1038 Death of King Stephen. He introduced Christianity and established the new Kingdom on a firm basis.</p> <p>1046 Accession of Andrew I.</p> <p>1056 Accession of Peter Kresimir II. as King of Croatia.</p> <p>1060 Accession of Bela I.</p> <p>1076 Accession of Demeter Zvonimir as King of Croatia.</p> <p>1077 Accession of Ladislaus the Saint.</p> <p>1087 Accession of Peter II., who was the last King of Croatia.</p> <p>1095 Accession of Coloman or Kálmán the Learned.</p> <p>1102 Croatia is united with Hungary.</p> <p>1114 Accession of Stephen II.</p> <p>1131 Accession of Bela II., the Blind.</p> <p>1141 Accession of Geza II.</p> <p>1161 Accession of Stephen III.</p> <p>1173 Accession of Bela III.</p> <p>1196 Accession of Emerich.</p> <p>1204 Accession of Andrew II.</p> <p>1222 Andrew II. grants the Golden Bull, the Magna Charta of Hungary.</p> <p>1235 Accession of Bela IV.</p> <p>1241 Hungary is invaded by the Mongols, who lay waste the country with sword and fire.</p> <p>1242 The Mongols retire. King Bela undertakes successfully the resettlement of his country.</p> <p>1270 Accession of Stephen V.</p> <p>1272 Accession of Ladislaus IV., the Kumanian.</p> <p>1290 Accession of Andrew III., who is the last King of the Arpád dynasty.</p>
From the extinction of the Arpád dynasty to the Battle of Mohács.	<p>1310 Accession of Charles Robert, of the House of Anjou.</p> <p>1342 Accession of Louis the Great, of the House of Anjou.</p> <p>1367 The University of Pécs is founded.</p> <p>1370 Louis becomes King of Poland and unites both kingdoms under his sceptre.</p> <p>1381 After a long struggle with Venice peace is concluded by which Dalmatia is annexed to Hungary.</p> <p>1382 Accession of Sigismund of Luxembourg.</p> <p>1396 Disastrous battle of Nicopolis, at which the flower of Western chivalry fell in battle against the Turks.</p> <p>1410 King Sigismund of Hungary is elected German Emperor.</p> <p>1438 Accession of Albert of Austria.</p> <p>1440 Accession of Wladyslaus III. of Poland.</p> <p>1443 John Hunyadi defeats the Turks and drives them south as far as the Balkan Mountains.</p> <p>1444 The Turks defeat the Hungarians at Varna. The King is slain in battle. John Hunyadi becomes regent of Hungary, during the minority of the King Ladislaus the Posthumous.</p> <p>1456 John Hunyadi defeats the Turks and relieves Belgrade, which they were besieging.</p> <p>1458 Matthias Corvinus is elected King of Hungary.</p> <p>1478 Matthias conquers Bohemia and Silesia and secures the title of King of Bohemia.</p> <p>1485 Matthias conquers Vienna.</p> <p>1490 Accession of Wladyslaw Jagiello, King of Bohemia.</p> <p>1514 The great revolt of the peasants under George Dozsa. He is defeated near Temesvar by John Zapolya, and the rising is suppressed with great cruelty.</p> <p>1516 Accession of Louis II.</p> <p>1521 Sultan Soleiman conquers Belgrade and directly threatens Hungary.</p> <p>1526 Sultan Soleiman gains the battle of Mohács. The Hungarian army is almost annihilated. The King is killed in the battle. Ferdinand I. of Habsburg is elected King of Hungary.</p>
From the Election of the Habsburgs to the beginning of the War of Liberation from the Turks.	<p>1527 John Zapolya, Prince of Transylvania, is also elected King of Hungary.</p> <p>1531 The Protestant College at Debreczen is founded.</p> <p>1540 John Sigismund Zapolya becomes Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1541 Sultan Soleiman again invades Hungary and enters Buda. Hungary is now divided into three parts: a small part under the Habsburgs; the greater part of the country under the direct rule of the Turks; and Transylvania, ruled by Magyar princes under the suzerainty of the Sultan.</p> <p>1566 The famous siege of Szigetvár by the Turks. The fortress, heroically defended by Nicholas Zrinyi. Sultan Soleiman dies during the siege.</p> <p>1571 Stephen Báthory becomes Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1575 Christopher Báthory becomes Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1581 Sigismund Báthory becomes Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1599 Andrew Báthory becomes Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1604 Hungarian Protestants revolt against the persecution of the Habsburgs. Stephen Bocskai is elected Prince of Transylvania and champions the Protestant cause.</p> <p>1606 By the Peace of Vienna the Emperor grants the Protestants freedom of worship.</p> <p>1608 Gabriel Báthory becomes Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1613 Accession of Gabriel Bethlen as Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1629 Accession of George Rákoczy I. as Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1635 The University of Buda is founded.</p> <p>1648 George Rákoczy II. becomes Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1657 Accession of Leopold I. of Habsburg as King of Hungary.</p> <p>1662 Michael Apaffy is elected Prince of Transylvania.</p> <p>1678 Revolt of the Hungarians under Count Imre Tököli against the Habsburgs.</p> <p>1683 Beginning of the War of Liberation against the Turks.</p> <p>1684 Duke Charles of Lorraine defeats the Turks at Gran.</p>



# DATES OF HUNGARIAN HISTORY—continued

	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
From the capture of Buda to the revival of Hungarian nationalism.	1786	The Austrians under Duke Charles of Lorraine capture Buda from the Turks.
	1687	Duke Charles of Lorraine inflicts a crushing defeat on the Turks near Mohács, the same place where 161 years previously the Hungarians suffered that disastrous defeat which cost them the independence of their country. The Diet at Pressburg decides that the crown of Hungary should be hereditary in the House of Habsburg.
	1689	Imre Toköli becomes Prince of Transylvania.
	1691	The Austrian army under the Margrave of Baden completely defeat a great Turkish army at Slankamen.
	1697	The crowning victory of Prince Eugene of Savoy at Zenta.
	1699	By the Treaty of Carlowitz nearly the whole of Hungary and Transylvania is recovered from the Turks.
	1703	The Hungarians revolt against the political and religious oppression of the Habsburgs.
	1705	Joseph I. of Austria becomes King of Hungary.
	1706	Francis Rákóczy becomes Prince of Transylvania.
	1711	The Peace of Szatmar concedes the Hungarian demands and reconciles the Hungarians with the Habsburgs.
		Charles VI. of Austria ascends the throne as Charles III. of Hungary.
	1716	Prince Eugene of Savoy defeats the Turks near Peterwardein.
	1718	By the Treaty of Passarowitz the banat of Temesvar is gained from the Turks.
	1723	The Hungarian Diet accepts the Pragmatic Sanction.
	1741	Maria Theresa crowned Queen of Hungary. The Hungarians enthusiastically support her against her enemies.
The Period of the War of Independence.	1779	Maria Theresa cedes to Hungary the seaport of Fiume.
	1780	Accession of Joseph II., who refuses to be crowned King of Hungary.
	1784	Joseph II. makes German the official language of the country. This measure as well as his disregard of the Hungarian constitution produces great unrest.
	1790	Joseph II. repeals nearly all of his edicts to which the Hungarians objected. His brother, Leopold II., succeeds him to the throne.
	1791	Leopold II. reintroduces the constitution and guarantees the independence of Hungary.
	1792	Francis II. of Austria becomes King of Hungary as Francis I.
	1809	Napoleon issues a famous proclamation to the Hungarian people to dethrone the Habsburgs and elect a new king. The Hungarians remain loyal.
	1825	Count Stephen Szechenyi addresses the Diet in Hungarian. The Hungarian Academy of Sciences is founded through the munificence of Szechenyi.
	1841	Louis Kossuth issues the <i>Pesti Hirlap</i> , the first political paper in Hungary.
		Kossuth makes a famous speech in the Diet, asking for constitutional reforms and for the appointment of a separate Cabinet (March 3rd). The Government at Vienna grants this demand, and Count Batthyany forms a Hungarian Cabinet. A new constitution and a whole series of laws approved by the government (April 10th). The Slavs and the Rumanians revolt against the threatened Hungarian hegemony. The breach with the government at Vienna widens and Jellachich, the Ban of Croatia, invades Hungary (September 17th). Assassination of Count Lamberg, the newly-appointed governor of Hungary. Kossuth becomes the real ruler. Accession of Francis Joseph (December 2nd). The Diet refuses to acknowledge him (December 7th). Beginning of the War of Independence.
	1849	The Austrian General Windischgrätz captures Pest (January 5th). Hungarians defeated at the battle of Kopolna (February 27th). The Diet deposes the Habsburgs and elects Kossuth President of the Republic (April 14th). The Hungarians succeed in regaining Pest (May 25th). General Haynau defeats the Hungarians at Temesvar (August 9th). The Hungarian commander-in-chief Gorgei surrenders at Vilagos (August 13th). The fortress of Komarom capitulates (September 27th). End of the War of Independence. Batthyany and other patriots and generals executed (October 6th).
		Hungary under martial law.
	1850	Francis Joseph grants an amnesty for political offences.
	1856	The Emperor grants a federalist constitution; Hungary is dissatisfied.
	1860	Prolonged negotiations for granting concessions to Hungary. The Diet adopts the proposal of Francis Deak for the restoration of the constitution of 1848.
	1867	The Emperor concludes with Deak the Compromise or Agreement establishing the Dual Monarchy. Hungary becomes an independent country. Count Julius Andrássy is appointed Prime Minister. Francis Joseph crowned at Budapest King of Hungary according to the old ceremonials. Reconciliation between the Habsburgs and the Hungarians complete.
Hungary as an independent state to the Millennium Celebrations.	1868	Andrássy introduces several liberal reforms, such as freedom of the Press and the removal of the disabilities of the Jews. He also starts an extensive railway building programme.
	1870	Austria kept neutral in the Franco-German War by the endeavours of Count Andrássy.
	1871	Count Julius Andrássy is appointed Foreign Minister of Austria-Hungary. It is the first time that a Hungarian occupies such a position under the Habsburgs.
	1873	Buda is united with Pest into one municipality; its growth since that time is remarkable.
	1875	Count Kalman Tisza becomes Prime Minister. He inaugurates a great programme of economic development.
	1876	Death of Francis Deak, a wise and moderate statesman.
	1878	Disastrous inundations of the river Tisza at Szeged; great loss of life.
	1886	Bi-centenary of the capture of Buda from the Turks celebrated.
	1889	Death of Count Julius Andrássy.
	1890	Kalman Tisza resigns.
	1892	Hungary adopts the gold standard as the basis of her currency.
	1894	Death of Louis Kossuth; great public funeral at Budapest. The civil marriage bill and other liberal religious measures passed. Trial and sentence of the leaders of the Rumanian national movement.
	1896	Great celebrations on the occasion of the one thousandth anniversary of the arrival of the Hungarians in the country. Millennium Exhibition opened by the King at Budapest. The Hungarian Parliament begins its sittings in the magnificent House on the banks of the Danube, modelled after our own Houses of Parliament.
	1902	Death of Kalman Tisza. British arts and crafts exhibition opened at Budapest.
	1903	Stephen Tisza becomes Prime Minister. The King formally announces his determination not to give way in the matter of changing the words of command in the army from German into Hungarian. Disturbances and riots in various parts of Croatia against several measures taken by the government.
	1904	Great strike of railwaymen for higher wages.
	1905	Death of Dr. Strossmayer. Bishop of Diakovar, Croatia, the intellectual leader of the South Slav movement. He founded the modern educational system of Croatia-Slavonia, the University of Agram being one of his creations.
	1907	The ten years' agreement with Austria renewed. Hungary is made a separate customs territory with the same tariff as Austria.
	1909	Great political crisis caused by the demands of the Independence party. Besides the introduction of Hungarian words of command in the army, the demands include the creation of a separate Hungarian State Bank.
	1910	Count Stephen Tisza forms the "National Party of Work" with a programme of moderate reforms.
	1912	The government suspends the autonomy and constitution of Croatia, where an absolutist régime is introduced.
	1913	Count Tisza is appointed Prime Minister. His cabinet includes Baron Stephen Burian.
	1915	Baron Stephen Burian is appointed Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister.

## CHAPTER XX

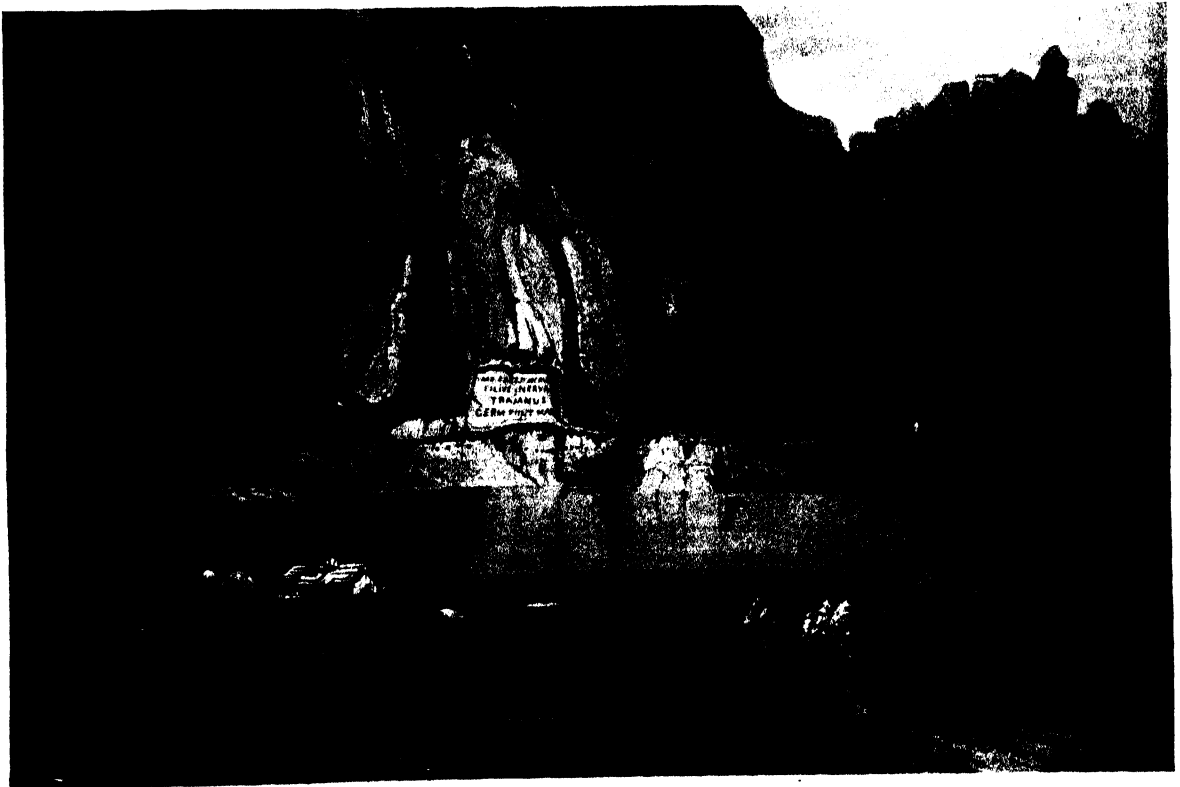
### THE HUNGARIANS. By OSCAR BRILLIANT

THE traveller through Hungary will notice in the principal towns as well as in conspicuous places throughout the country special monuments named Arpád or Millennium Monuments. These monuments, unveiled in 1896, have been erected to commemorate the thousandth anniversary of the arrival of the Hungarians in the country, and the foundation of a state which has continued to the present day.

The territory now occupied by the kingdom of Hungary, as well as that of the adjoining empire of Austria, with which its history is closely connected, was already inhabited during the Stone Age. Recent archæological discoveries have brought to light not only wrought flints, but also bronze and iron utensils, which show an uninterrupted succession of inhabitants and civilizations since the earliest prehistoric period. But we have no means of knowing to what race these primitive inhabitants belonged.

The first race of whose existence we have certain knowledge are the Celts, who under various names occupied these regions about the fourth century B.C. Thus the Boii occupied the district which has since been called Bohemia ; the Taurisci, later called the Norici, occupied the southern part of Austria ; while the Scordisci occupied Croatia and Slavonia. During the second century B.C. the Celts were attacked from the north by Germanic tribes, such as the Cimbri, Marcomanni, Suevi, Quadi, and others, and from the south by the Romans. As early as 180 B.C. Istria became a Roman province, when the port of Tergeste, the modern Trieste, was built. Subsequently the whole coast of Dalmatia, as well as the region watered by the Danube and the Drave, known as Pannonia, were conquered by the Romans.

During the first century B.C. a warlike people, the Dacians, founded between the rivers Danube, Tisza and Dniester a powerful state which came several times in collision with the Romans. At last the



INSCRIPTION IN THE KAZAN PASS.

The Daci, a warlike people who harassed the Romans in the first century A.D., inhabited a part of what is now Hungary. In 101 the Emperor Trajan crossed the Danube and entered on a five years' campaign, in which he completely subjugated the country and left this memorial of his victories in the Kazan Pass.



EARLY INHABITANTS.

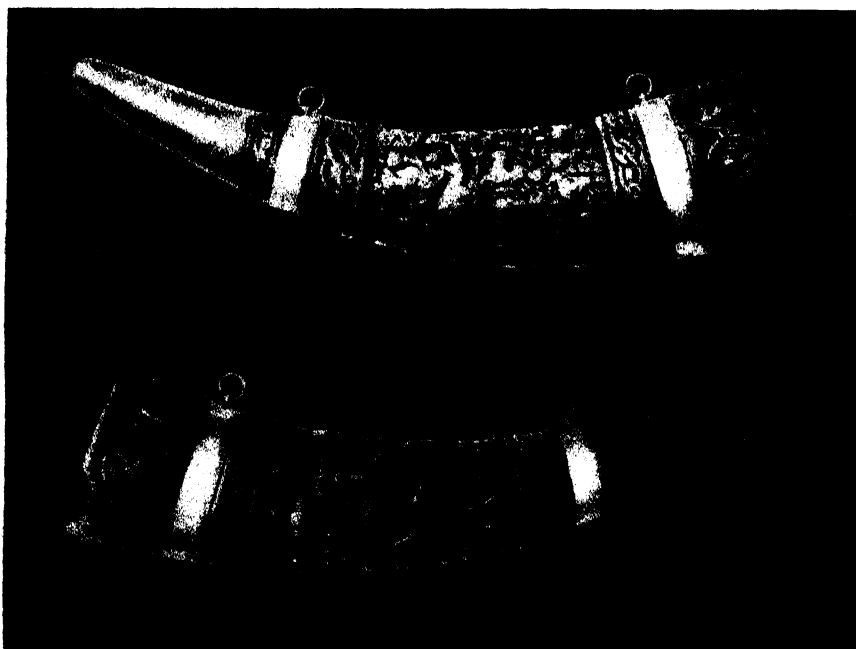
Before the great invasion of the Hungarians in the ninth century Hungary is commonly supposed to have been populated by peoples of Slav origin. At a yet earlier period it formed the Roman provinces of Dacia and Pannonia.

present kingdom of Hungary. Under their king Attila (437-453) the Huns undertook those ravaging expeditions in Germany, France and Italy, which earned for him the name, the Scourge of God. The court of Attila was on the banks of the Tisza, somewhere in the neighbourhood of the present Szeged.

The power of the Huns was broken by the Ostrogoths and other Germanic tribes, and when these retired southwards, the whole territory of Hungary and Austria was settled by Slav tribes. Soon afterwards, the Avars, an Asiatic people akin to the Huns, invaded Hungary, subjugated the Slavs, and under their chief Bajan (571-603), founded here a powerful state. This state was broken towards the end of the eighth century by

emperor Trajan, in two successful expeditions, defeated their king Decebalus and conquered Dacia (105 A.D.). The famous Trajan Column in Rome commemorates this successful campaign in Dacia. Both Dacia and the adjoining province of Pannonia were now Roman provinces and enjoyed the blessings of Roman civilization. A widespread network of towns, fortresses and roads, traces of which are to be seen even to-day, covered these territories. Colonists from all parts of the Roman empire were settled here, especially in Dacia. The rich gold and salt mines of Transylvania began to be worked, and the cultivation of the vine in these regions dates from this period. But the Roman occupation was of short duration here. The mighty revolution called the migration of nations—that is, the pressing forward of populations from the north and east towards the south and west—began during the third century of our era. The Germanic tribes of Goths, Ostrogoths, Gepidae and Lombards passed through these regions, remaining here for a little time and destroying the Roman civilization.

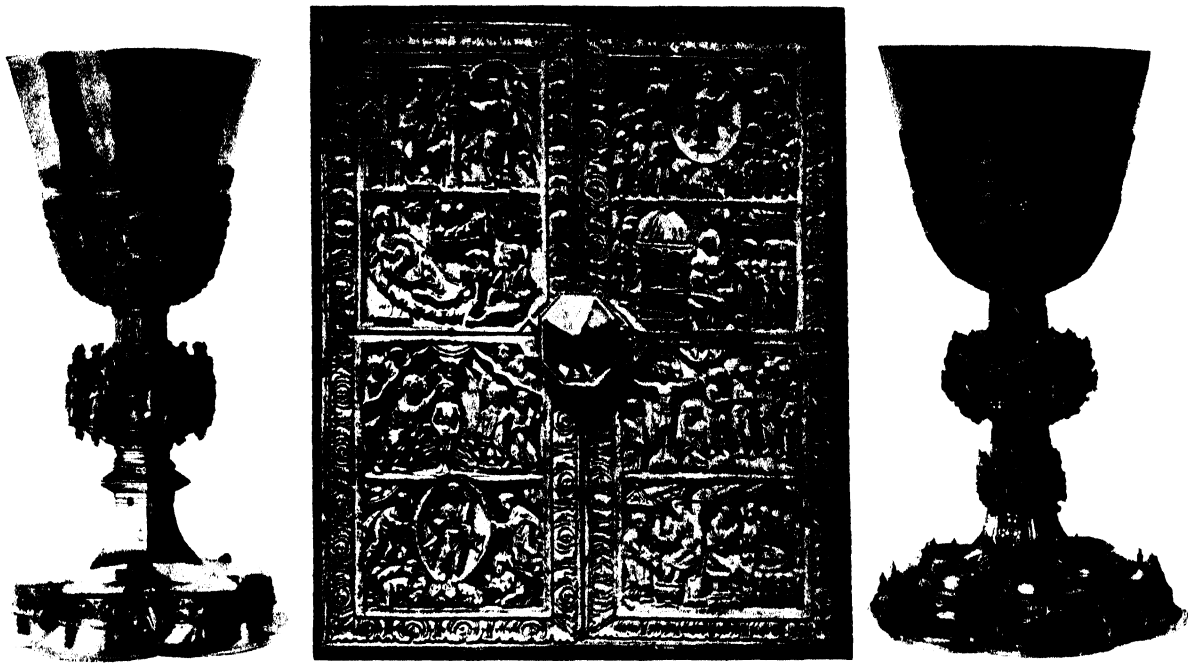
These Germanic tribes were pushed further at the end of the fourth century by the Huns, who founded here an empire, the nucleus of which was the



[In the Museum of the town of Jaszbereny.

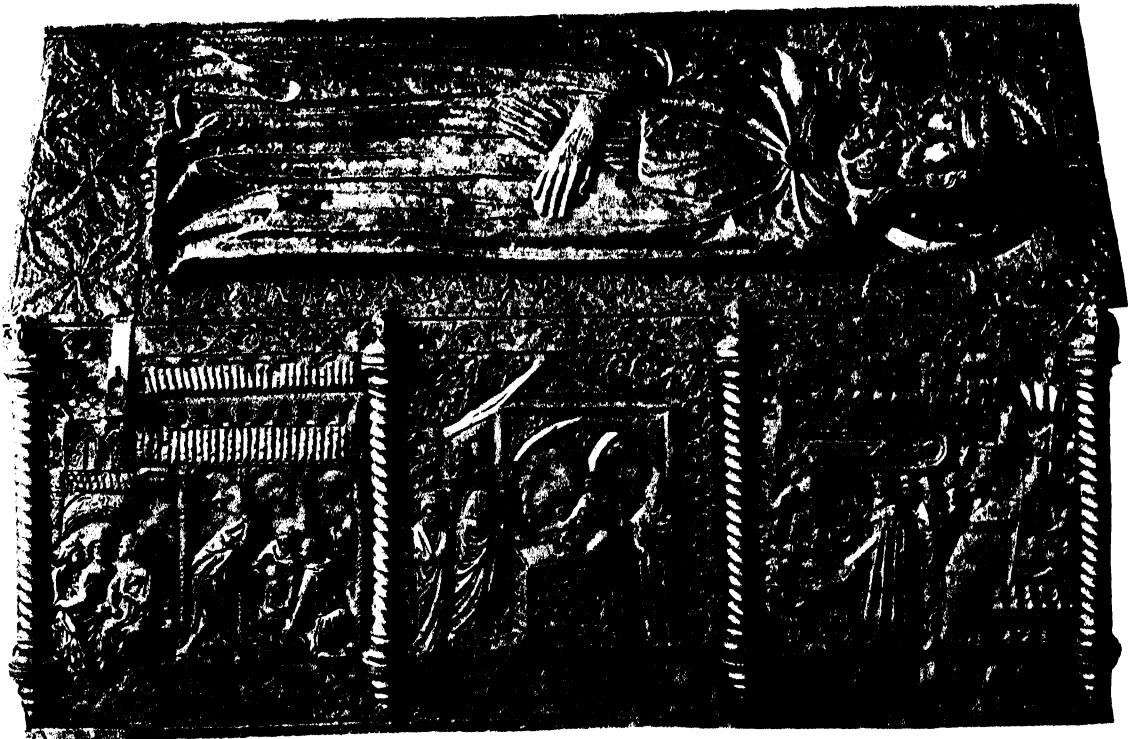
## FAMOUS IVORY BUGLE-HORN BELONGING TO THE TOWN OF JASZBERENY.

This ivory bugle-horn, with beautiful relief carvings representing hunting and military scenes, is assigned by tradition as having belonged to the famous Hungarian chief Lehel (tenth century). Several touching legends are woven around this horn, which is greatly prized by the Jagyzes and Kumanians, whose chieftain wears it on festive occasions.



TWO BEAUTIFUL CHURCH CUPS OR CHALICES AND FAMOUS IVORY PLATE IN THE CATHEDRAL OF AGRAM.

These two beautiful chalices, shown on each side, are made of solid silver and gilded. They are both artistically engraved and decorated with scenes from the New Testament and statues of saints. These cups have been produced in Transylvania during the first half of the fifteenth century. The cup on the left is now in the Cathedral of Gran, that on the right in the Cathedral of Kassa. The centre picture is of an ivory plate found in the Cathedral of Agram, the capital of Croatia-Slavonia, and is one of the oldest church relics in Hungary. Judging from its workmanship it was produced in the tenth or eleventh century. The plate, which is formed by four smaller plates, contains, carved in relief, eight principal scenes from the life of Jesus Christ. [*Preserved in the Cathedral of Agram.*]



[Kept in the Church of St. Simeon at Zara.

#### THE SARCOPHAGUS OF ST. SIMEON AT ZARA.

This splendid ark or reliquary of St. Simeon is worked in silver and was executed to the orders of Queen Elizabeth, the wife of King Louis the Great of Hungary. It is the work of the artist Francis of Milan, who made it in 1380. The scene on the right hand side represents the entry of Louis the Great into Zara. The ark is kept in the Church of St. Simeon at Zara, the capital of Dalmatia.

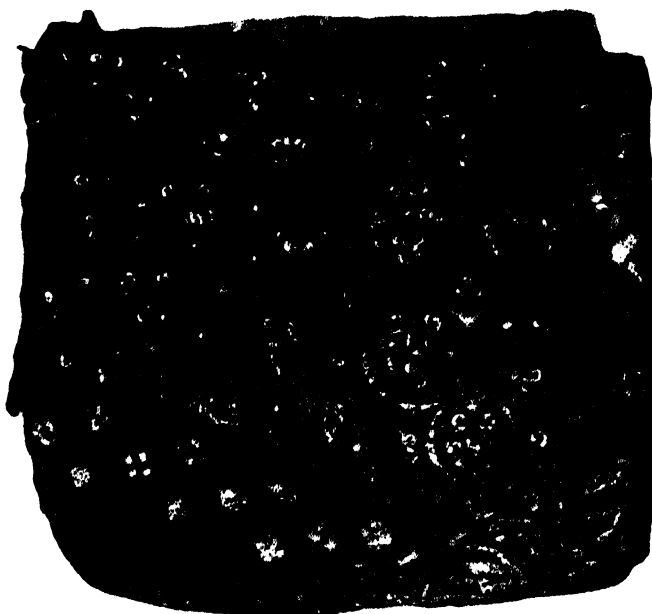
Charlemagne, who carried out against the Avars one of the most relentless and devastating wars known to history.

A century after their downfall arrived the Magyars, a Turanian people, related to the Avars and to the Huns, and for the third time the valley of the Danube was occupied by a branch of the Turanian race. The permanent establishment of the Hungarians in these regions had a great influence on the history of Europe; but its peculiar significance was that it divided the northern from the southern

whom the Latin writers called the *Hungari*, penetrated from the north over the Carpathians through the pass of Vereczke and the valley of Latorcza, and occupied the country between the rivers Tisza and the Danube. We have no exact information concerning the route by which they arrived or the year when this event took place. It is, however, certain that they were in possession of that territory between the years 889-896. Coming from Central Asia, the Magyars gradually made their way westwards,

Slavs and the eastern from the western branch. The wealth of Europe evidently attracted them, but Leo the Wise, the Emperor of the East, asked their assistance against the Bulgarians who were threatening Constantinople. At the same time, Arnulph, the German emperor, asked their help against the extensive, but short-lived Slavonic empire of Moravia, founded by Svatopluk (850-890), which included a large portion of Hungary of to-day.

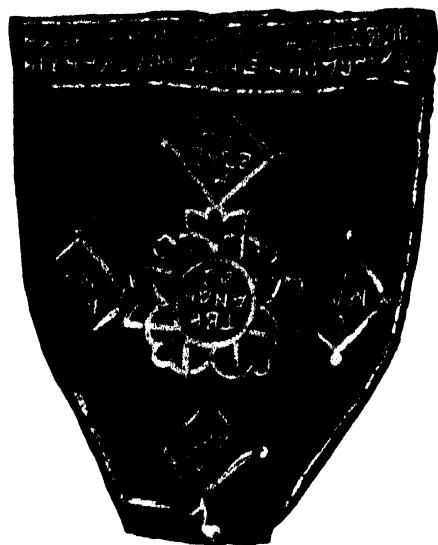
These so-called Mogurs or Magyars,



[Preserved in the Capuchin Monastery at Vienna.]

#### THE CAP OF KING ST. STEPHEN.

Amongst the greatly valued relics preserved from the time of the first King of Hungary is this piece of cloth, which is part of what used to be the cap worn in the house by King St. Stephen (eleventh century). It is made of silk of a light cherry colour, which represents a variety of the medieval purple, and is richly embroidered with silk and gold threads.

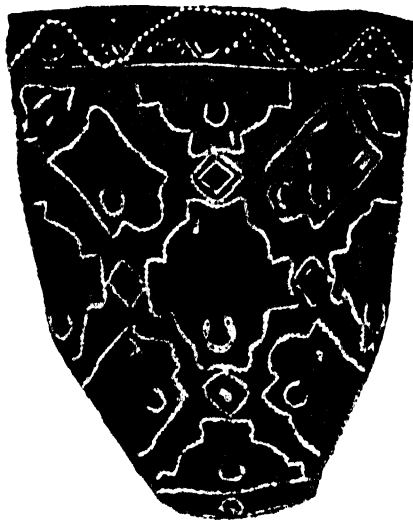


[Preserved in the]

#### THE PURSE OF KING ST. STEPHEN.

The Hungarian chroniclers often relate how King Stephen used to distribute alms to the poor from a—

and about the sixth century of our era they settled on the northern shores of the Black Sea. The march of the Hungarians from here and the occupation of the country was accomplished under the leadership of Arpád, who, when he died in 907, had already completed the conquest of the greater part of Hungary. The conquest of the country was not a difficult task for a warlike nation like the Hungarians, who were trained horsemen, remarkable for their dexterity as archers and javelin throwers.



[Capuchin Monastery at Vienna.]

—purse filled with gold coins. Parts of that purse, which have been preserved, are shown here. That on the left is made of red silk and is richly embroidered. Especially fine and striking is the embroidery in the middle representing Our Saviour.

But the Danubian districts were only a base for further raids, which made the Hungarians the scourge and terror of Europe. They first devastated the southern provinces of Germany, and in 910 defeated the German army at Lechfeld, near Augsburg. They afterwards invaded at various periods Alsace, Lorraine, Champagne, and even the Provence. Their raids extended also to Italy and various parts of the Balkan Peninsula. From these expeditions they used to return laden with booty and slaves, whom they settled in their land. It was only after the crushing defeat inflicted by the German emperor Otto I. at Lechfeld on August 10th, 955, that the Magyars were compelled to content themselves with the lands in the valley of the Danube, and to organize themselves into a proper state in conformity with the political life of Europe. This work was undertaken by Geza (972-997), a grandson of Arpád, who under the influence of his second wife, who was a Christian, accepted Christianity. During his reign the emperor



*From the painting]*

*[By C. L. Muller.*

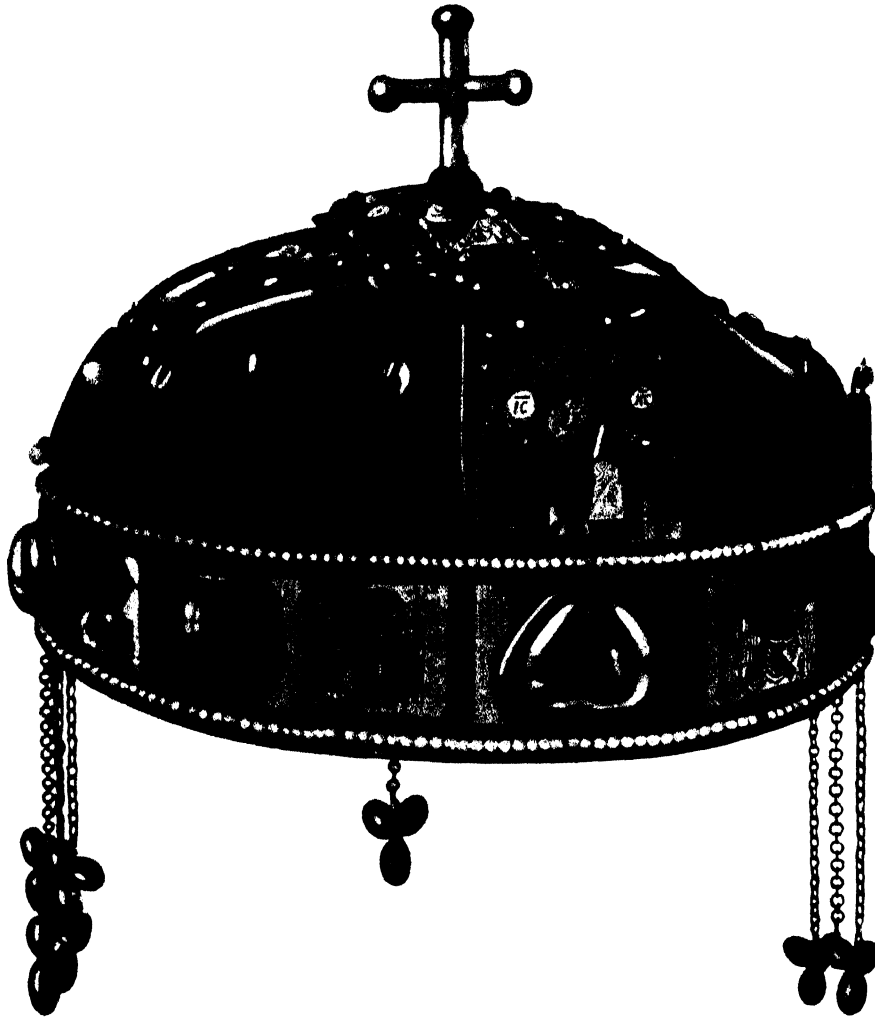
## ST. ELIZABETH OF HUNGARY.

Elizabeth, daughter of King Andreas II. of Hungary, was born in 1207. From her earliest years she displayed the most passionate devotion to her faith and soon acquired a wide reputation for religious fervour and sanctity. She married the Landgrave Louis IV. of Thuringia, but his early death left her a widow at the age of twenty. Thenceforward she devoted her life to ascetic observance and the succour of the poor. She died in 1231 and was canonized in 1235.

Otto II. of Germany re-established the mark of Austria as a defence of the empire against the Hungarians, and conferred it upon Leopold of Babenberg. Leopold of Babenberg defeated the Hungarians near Vienna, and drove them over the river Leitha, which from now on became the frontier between the two countries. The reign of Geza prepared the ground for the deep and revolutionary reforms which his son Stephen successfully carried out.

Stephen was one of the constructive statesmen of history. During his reign of forty years (997-1038) he succeeded in establishing for Hungary a recognized place among the European states, and in completing the conversion of the country to Christianity. He is honoured by the Hungarians as the second founder of their country, the first being, of course, the semi-mythical Arpád. When Stephen made Christianity the dominant religion of his realm, he chose, for political reasons, the Western form of Christianity. But by becoming Catholic, Hungary ran the risk of falling politically under the influence

of the Holy Roman Empire, or of her Church being subjugated to the ecclesiastical organization of Germany. In order to secure the independence of his position as a ruler and that of the Church of his realm, he decided to apply direct to the Pope, Sylvester II. The Pope, in reply, announced that he took the people of Hungary under the protection of the Church and conferred the royal crown on Stephen. At the same time the Pope granted to Stephen and his successors the right of naming themselves "Apostolic Kings," a title which is still borne by the present ruler of the country. On the 15th of August of the year 1000, Stephen was crowned at Esztergom (Gran), which was then the capital of the country,



THE HUNGARIAN CROWN, OR THE CROWN OF ST. STEPHEN.

Amongst the national possessions of the Hungarians none is held in greater veneration than this crown, which the Pope sent to their first king, St. Stephen. In fact the Hungarians recognize as their rightful king only the person who has been crowned according to ancient ceremonies with this crown.

with the crown sent by the Pope. And to this day the Hungarians acknowledge as their king only the person who has been crowned with the crown of St. Stephen. The present royal crown of Hungary is not exactly the same as that with which Stephen was crowned. This crown consists of two parts, of which the lower part is the original crown sent by the Pope, while the upper part has been added later.

Stephen gave his new kingdom a thorough organization in ecclesiastical, military, administrative, judicial, and economic questions which completely transformed its public and social life. He divided the country into ten bishoprics, all under the archbishop of Esztergom. He founded several abbeys, which he richly endowed, and put their property under the protection of the king. The Hungarian Catholic Church has preserved to

our day the larger part of these grants. Stephen shaped the institutions of the new kingdom after the Western States. But he was careful not to introduce the feudal system of the West, for he was anxious to strengthen the royal power. And he succeeded in founding a state where the royal power was greater than in any other Catholic country of the time. The introduction of the famous county system which has played such an important part in the political life of the country is due to him. He divided Hungary into counties, governed by a lord-lieutenant appointed by the king, who exercised civil and military power. Two-thirds of the revenue of the county went into the royal treasury. When Stephen began to reign property was of two kinds—the property of the crown and the property of the



#### SORTIE OF ZRINYI DURING THE DEFENCE OF SZIGETVAR AGAINST THE TURKS, 1566.

In 1566 the great Sultan Soliman embarked on a war with the Emperor Maximilian II, and began operations with the siege of Szeged, which was bravely defended by its commander, Count Nicholas Zrinyi. The besiegers numbered at least one hundred thousand, but the garrison harassed them with perpetual sorties, and the Turks could only progress by mining the walls. The Sultan died during the siege, but three days later the fortress fell and Zrinyi died a warrior's death.





ANDREW III. OF HUNGARY.

Andrew III., the last of the Árpád dynasty, succeeded to the throne of Hungary in 1290 on the murder of Ladislaus IV. His succession, however, was disputed by the Pope, who had inspired a crusade against Ladislaus, and now assigned the kingdom to Charles of Naples. The Hungarians resenting foreign interference, rallied round Andrew, who defeated Charles at Agram and reigned unchallenged till his death in 1301.

tribe. Individual ownership of soil did not exist. Stephen substituted for the tribal rights private ownership, making grants of land to persons who performed military service for the king. His power was absolute, but he preserved the right of the nation—that is, of the nobles—to meet in general assembly, and also the elective character of the crown.

In converting the country to Christianity

Stephen did not content himself to use only persuasion, but also undertook several punitive expeditions against chiefs and tribes who did not accept his reforms. By his measures Stephen succeeded in establishing a completely independent kingdom between the two empires of the east and west. His ideas on all matters of government are to be found in the counsels which he wrote for his only son and heir, Imre, who, however, died before him. This book is very interesting. Five centuries later the Roman Catholic Church made Stephen a saint, and the kingdom he founded is known to this day as the realm of St. Stephen.

The period between the death of Stephen and the accession of Ladislaus the Saint (1077-1095) was troubled with civil wars, efforts to reintroduce paganism, and the invasion of two separate hordes of barbarians, the Petchenegs and the Kumanians. The ambition of the German emperors also menaced the independence of the country. The outbreak of the quarrel about investiture (1076)



Ladislaus I., Saint (1040-1095), succeeded to the throne of Hungary in 1077, and speedily gained fame by making Christianity the national religion and by working for the political ascendancy of Hungary. To accomplish the latter he made an alliance with the Pope which was directed against the German emperor, Henry IV. After the collapse of the latter, Ladislaus was free to extend his dominion further south.

After the drawing in Hartmannus Schedel's *Chronicle*, Nurnberg, 1493.

#### THE CASTLE OF BUDA AT THE TIME OF KING MATTHIAS CORVINUS.

This very interesting drawing shows the palace occupied by Matthias Corvinus, which was situated to the right of the church. The court of Matthias was one of the most brilliant in Europe, and his palace was a veritable storehouse of art treasures. In a hall overlooking the Danube was located the world-famous library founded by the king.

between the Emperor and the Pope, in which Ladislaus sided with the Pope, secured the consolidation of the kingdom and its aggrandisement by the conquest of Croatia. His successor, Coloman or Kálmán the Learned (1095-1116), conquered part of Dalmatia, and was crowned king of Croatia and



From a relief in the Art History Museum at Vienna.

## KING MATTHIAS.

During his reign Matthias "the Great" of Hungary (1458-1490) curbed the lawless nobility, suppressed internal disorders, waged a series of successful foreign wars, and made Hungary the most powerful state in Central Europe. His triumphs, however, were the triumphs of an outstanding personality and his work was undone at his death.

kingdom. The German settlers of Transylvania received from the king a separate district, were exempted from many taxes, and were granted other privileges. The early part of the thirteenth century, coinciding with the reign of Andrew II. (1204-1235), saw a great weakening of the royal power in favour of the nobles. Andrew II. took part in the Fourth Crusade, and after returning home, he granted in 1222 the famous charter known as the Golden Bull. It was so named owing to the fact that the seal appended to it by a silken string rests in a box made of gold.

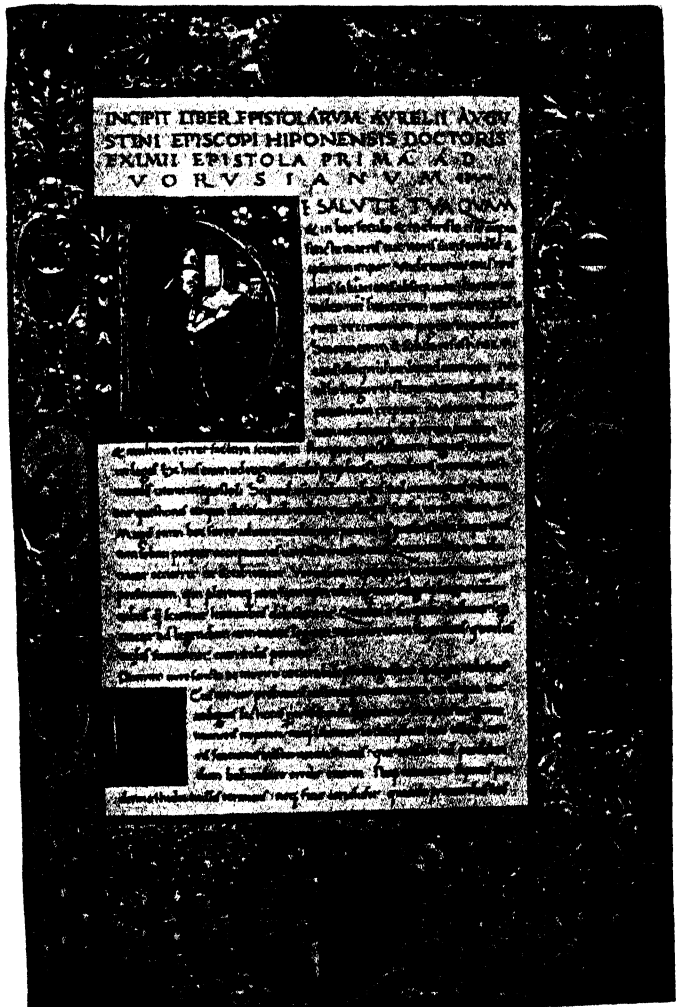
This famous charter has aptly been called the Magna Charta of Hungary, and is in some of its provisions strikingly similar to that signed seven years previously by our King John. Like our Magna Charta, this charter is generally regarded as the foundation of Hungarian constitutional liberty. The Golden Bull has been described as consecrating the humiliation of the crown by the great barons, whose usurpations it legalized; the more usually accepted view, however, is that it was directed not so much to weakening as to strengthening the crown

Dalmatia in 1102. This gave the enlarged kingdom a seaboard on the Adriatic Sea.

Ladislaus lives to our day in the memory of the people as the beau-ideal of Hungarian heroism and chivalry. Like Stephen, he was the law-giver of his country. He defeated the Kumanians, and offered them a permanent settlement in the country on condition that they embraced Christianity. They accepted the offer, and colonized a portion of the valley of the Tisza, where they have lived since then. Coloman was specially remarkable as an administrative reformer, and it is said that during his reign Hungary was the best-governed country in Europe.

A very important event during the twelfth century was the establishment of colonies of Germans in various parts of the country. King Geza II. (1141-1160) conquered Transylvania, and in-

vited many Saxons and Flemish into his



[After the original in the Imperial Library at Vienna.

## PAGE OF A MANUSCRIPT FROM THE LIBRARY OF KING MATTHIAS.

Matthias was not only a great warrior and ruler but a highly accomplished scholar. He encouraged the spread of education, established universities and gathered round him learned men of all nations. He founded a magnificent library and stocked it with manuscripts, some originals and some copies.

by uniting its interests with those of the smaller nobility equally threatened by the encroachments of the great barons. Amongst its principal provisions are : the obligation of the king to convoke the diet every year ; the exemption of the nobles from taxation ; and the right of the nobles to refuse military service abroad, the defence of the realm being their only obligation.



*From the original preserved in the Museum of the Imperial Arsenal at Vienna.*

#### ARMOUR OF KING LOUIS II. (1516-1526).

This full armour and helmet is a splendid specimen of the armour worn by the Hungarian warriors during the first half of the sixteenth century. It belonged to Louis II., the unfortunate young King of Hungary who was killed in the disastrous battle of Mohács against the Turks.

During the reign of Béla IV. (1235-1270) happened the terrible event of the invasion of the Mongols or Tartars, which threatened to destroy everything. The Mongols invaded the country in 1241, and after defeating the Hungarian army at the river Sajó, passed Hungary under sword and fire. The following year they retired quite unexpectedly, and Béla set himself the task, which he accomplished quite successfully, of rebuilding his kingdom, which was depopulated and in ashes. Under Ladislaus IV. (1272-1290) the Hungarians were the allies of Rudolph of Habsburg against Ottokar, king of Bohemia, and helped him in the decisive battle of the Marchfeld (1278), which secured Austria to the House of Habsburg.

His son, Andrew III. (1290-1301), was the last male descendant of the Arpád family. This dynasty had conquered Hungary, had organized it as a state on the Western model, and had transformed the nomadic Magyar people into a settled and Christian nation. A succession of wise rulers had preserved the new state internally from Pagan reaction and externally from foreign aggressions. These rulers maintained its independence against the attacks coming both from the Eastern and Western Empires, and also against the paternal meddling of the Pope, the nominal suzerain. The kingdom expanded territorially, became an important factor in international politics, and a bulwark against the barbarians, who still kept invading Europe from the East. The Arpád dynasty achieved these triumphs during the first two centuries of its rule, while the monarchy was absolute. But during the thirteenth century an oligarchy, recruited from the ranks of the nobility, rose to power and overshadowed the royal authority. They oppressed the nation, and their continual civil discords weakened the country, which was relapsing into anarchy and barbarism.

Two kings of the House of Anjou rescued the country from this bad situation and brought Hungary to its highest point. These were Charles I. (1310-1342) and his son Louis I. (1342-1382). After long civil struggles the vacant throne was secured in 1310 by Charles Robert, Count of Anjou, who was related in the female line to the Arpád family. Charles I. was an excellent ruler. He introduced order into the

country, and reorganized its military, financial and economic life. His foreign policy was very ambitious, and if his hope of uniting the crowns of Naples and Hungary was not fulfilled, he succeeded in gaining the Polish crown for his son, Louis, surnamed the Great. During the long and brilliant reign of Louis many useful reforms were introduced. He established on a feudal basis the whole hierarchy of the nobles and also improved their material condition. He raised the economic status of the country by granting charters and trading privileges to a great number of towns. He also promoted education and



*Reproduced from the painting*

*by Martin von Meytens and Philip Ferdinand Hamilton.*

#### MARIA THERESA ON THE CORONATION HILL AT PRESSBURG.

Maria Theresa was the eldest daughter of the Emperor Charles VI, and was born at Vienna in 1717. She married Francis of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany, in 1736, and on her father's death in 1740 became Archduchess of Austria, and Queen of Hungary and Bohemia. At her accession the people were discontented whilst both army and monarchy were exhausted—nevertheless, she won the affection of her subjects and proved a really great autocratic ruler. She is depicted on the Coronation Hill at Pressburg, the former capital of Hungary.





#### GRAN

Gran is a royal free city of Hungary. St. Stephen, the first king, was born there in 979, and it became the most important town of the country. It is now the See of the Primate of Hungary. The immense cathedral dates from the middle of last century.



From the book,]

[*"Der Triumphzug des Kaisers Maximilian I."*

#### KURUCZ REBELS DRIVING AN AUSTRIAN PRISONER.

As a result of the political and religious persecution of Leopold I. the Hungarians revolted in 1672, and for ten years waged against the Austrians a merciless war, during which both sides committed frightful atrocities.

Europe at that period. During his reign (1387-1437) Hungary was brought face to face with the Turkish menace in its most dangerous shape, for in the second half of the fourteenth century the Turks had conquered the Balkan Peninsula and directly threatened Hungary. He therefore strove to prevent them from conquering Hungary and from invading Western Europe. And during the fifteenth and the two following centuries we see the Hungarian people in a new historic rôle, that of champion and martyr of Christendom. Sigismund saw well that with his own unaided strength he was not in a position to stop the advance of the Turks. He appealed therefore to the whole of Europe, and not in vain. At his call the flower of the Western chivalry, about thirty thousand warriors, assembled in the spring of 1396 at Buda, whence this great international host, increased by thirty thousand of Sigismund's army marched south. At Nicopolis, however, this army was completely defeated by the Turks.

When in the next century the Turks, under Murad I., resumed their conquests in Europe, the Hun-

garians under Sigismund encountered them successfully thrice—in 1422, 1426, 1430. Realizing that Hungary would have to rely on her own resources and wage a defensive war, he took measures to raise a standing army, and he strongly fortified Belgrade, situated at the junction of the Danube and Save.

Under Sigismund's immediate successors the confusion at home and abroad increased more and more, and the pressure of the Turks upon the southern provinces became continuous. The country was only saved through the genius of John Hunyadi, one of the



From the book,]

[*"Der Triumphzug des Kaisers Maximilian I."*

#### HUNGARIAN DRESSES OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

This very interesting contemporary picture shows Hungarians wearing the local costumes of the province from which they come. The elaborate headgear and the richly embroidered long coats are typical of the national love for adornment and bright colours.

ablest generals of the century and one of the greatest national heroes of Hungary. Rising from the low nobility, he became Governor of Hungary. His career begins during the reign of Sigismund, and he became a pillar of the throne of Wladislaus III. (1440-1444). He gained numerous victories against the Turks, who repeatedly broke into the land, and in 1443 led his victorious troops south as far as the Balkans. Sultan Murad begged for peace on very favourable terms for Hungary. On the advice of Hunyadi these were accepted, and a peace of ten years was signed. But instigated by the Pope and the Italian states Wladislaus resumed the war. The Hungarians suffered, on November 10th, 1444, a complete defeat at Varna, where the young king fell in the battle.

During the minority of King Ladislaus V. John Hunyadi was elected governor of the land, and strove vigorously to stop the domestic anarchy, the lawlessness of the nobles and the advance of the Turks. After the capture of Constantinople (1453) the Sultan again attacked Hungary, and besieged Belgrade, the gate of Hungary. Hunyadi, at his own expense, enrolled an army, in which large numbers enlisted at the inspiring words of the Franciscan friar, John Capistrano. With this army Hunyadi relieved the beleaguered fortress and defeated the Turks. With this glorious victory, which saved Hungary from invasion, he finished his noble life, for he died a few days later (August 11th, 1456) in his camp. He left two sons, towards whom King Ladislaus V. acted with cruelty. He caused the elder to be executed, and carried the younger, Matthias, as prisoner along with him to Prague. Matthias soon came back again, for after the sudden death of Ladislaus V. the Diet elected the youth of eighteen king of Hungary.

Matthias Hunyadi or Corvinus, so-called from the raven or *corvus* which adorned his father's escutcheon, was the greatest king the country ever had. His reign of thirty-two years (1458-90) is the last expiring effort of independent Hungary.

Under him Hungary reached the highest point in her military and political power, and made the greatest advance in material and intellectual progress. Matthias excelled alike as a military leader and organizer, as a statesman and diplomatist, and as a patron of arts and learning.

Early in his reign he set himself the task of organizing a trained standing army, which should be in his pay, and consequently at his disposal. In a short time he succeeded in bringing into existence one of the largest and best equipped armies in Europe. This military organization enabled Matthias to secure domestic peace, to curb the lawlessness of the oligarchy, and to crush the numerous rebellions



[From the originals in the Museum at Gratz.]

## HUNGARIAN ARMS AND ARMOUR.

Although gunpowder was in use by the fourteenth century armour was still worn in the seventeenth, for it was proof against the medieval firearm and was only driven out of fashion by the necessity for rapid movement. The pike, as shown here, was still the chief infantry weapon.



which the big barons engineered against him. He endeavoured to base his power on the lower nobility and on the masses, from whom he recruited an efficient official class. His generals, his bishops, and his high dignitaries were mostly men belonging to these classes.

Matthias also re-codified the Hungarian laws. One particular trait of his character was his love of justice, and in an age when might was right he did his utmost to protect the weak from the strong. The memory of his fame in this respect has survived to the present day in the popular proverb: "King Matthias is dead, justice has fled." Matthias took many measures for the development of industry by protecting the towns, improving and keeping secure the roads, and encouraging exports. In his time the mining industries attained in Hungary a high development, and the country was a large exporter of iron, tin and copper. The king himself owned several mines, from which he derived a large income.



*In the possession of the Count of Palffy. Exhibited at the Millennium Exhibition of 1896.*

#### THE FAMOUS PALFFY CUP.

This famous gold cup was presented by the Estates of Austria to Count Nicholas Palffy for his heroic defence of the town of Győr against the Turks in 1598.

Under his reign Hungary became the greatest power in Central Europe. He was obliged to carry on against Frederick IV. of Austria four great wars, and finally succeeded (1485) in capturing Vienna and a great part of Lower Austria and Styria, which he retained till his death. He became involved in a long war with Bohemia, which ended with the conquest of Moravia and Silesia, and secured for him the title of King of Bohemia. He did not undertake any great campaign against the Turks, but his armies repeatedly defeated their invading bands, and even conquered in 1475 the fortress of Shabatz. During

*In the possession of Count Esterházy. Exhibited at the Millennium Exhibition of 1896.*

#### CUP OF ANTON LOSONCZI (1548).

This cup and the plate below are made of solid silver gilded, and they are both extremely beautiful examples of the silver-smith's art as seen in Hungary.

his reign the Turkish menace, against which his father fought so valiantly, lost its threatening character.

Living in the period of the Renaissance, he was so strongly imbued with the spirit of that movement

that even his Italian contemporaries praised Matthias as a great patron of art and science. He made his court one of the greatest European centres of learning and art. He attracted to Buda great numbers of Italian and other foreign scholars, poets, painters, sculptors, architects, and he employed many of them permanently.

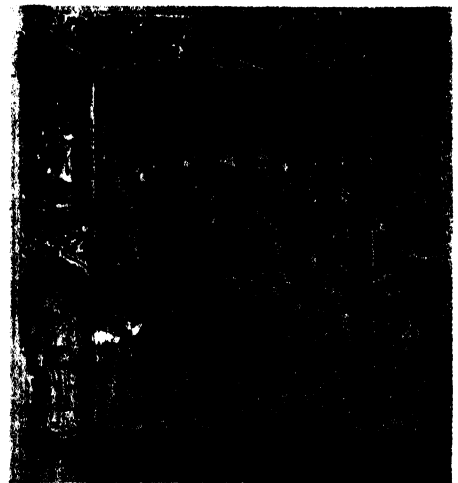
His palace at Buda became famous throughout Europe for its magnificence,



*In the possession of Count Esterházy. Exhibited at the Millennium Exhibition of 1896.*

#### PLATE OF ANTON LOSONCZI (1548).

This silver plate is engraved with mythological and biblical scenes, remarkable for the beauty and finish of their workmanship. This and the cup above were probably made on the occasion of the wedding of Anton Losonczi with Clara Bathory, the coat of arms of both families being engraved in the middle of the plate.



*Exhibited at the Millennium Exhibition at Budapest in 1896.*

#### CARVED ALTAR IN THE CHURCH AT DOBRONYA.

This carved altar is the work of an Hungarian artist from the beginning of the sixteenth century and is a good specimen of the work of that period. It shows the influence of the great artist Veith Stoss, who just at that time was creating some of its best productions in the neighbouring country of Poland, especially at Cracow.



From the painting]

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#### THE BATTLE OF ZENTA.

[By Von Blons.

Driven out of Hungary in 1689 the Turks rallied next year and, having reconquered Servia and Bulgaria, prepared to renew their invasions. The war assumed a desultory character for several years, but in 1697 Prince Eugene of Savoy, a brilliant general, gained a decisive victory over the Turks at Zenta. The Turks were unable to continue the struggle and by the Treaty of Karlowitz abandoned almost all their conquests in Hungary.

its works of art, and his brilliant intellectual life. A work in which he took special interest and pride was the library which he established in his palace at Buda, and on which he spent yearly a great sum of money. This library, the world-famous Corvina, contained at his death over ten thousand volumes, all splendid manuscripts beautifully illuminated with miniature paintings and ornaments, and bound in costly bindings. Although Matthias Corvinus was twice married he did not leave any legitimate son. He tried, therefore, to secure the succession to the throne to his natural son, John Corvinus. But unfortunately he died suddenly before he had time to properly settle the question, and the collapse of the power he organized followed soon after his death.

The glamour of the reign of Matthias Corvinus was the cause that for the next two decades Hungary



GABRIEL BETHLEN.

Gabriel Bethlen, the most able of the Princes of Transylvania, reigned from 1613 to 1629, a period during which Transylvania, as champion of the Magyars and the Protestants, became one of the most powerful states of Europe. He was twice recognized as king of Hungary, and added substantial portions of that country to his dominions. Though a zealous Calvinist, he allowed the Jesuits to print their version of the Scriptures.



SIGISMUND BATHORY.

Sigismund Bathory became Prince of Transylvania in 1581. On attaining his majority he devoted himself to expelling the Turks from Hungary, and proved himself a commander of a very high order. In 1599 he abdicated in order to enter the Church, but soon repented of this decision and made two fruitless attempts to regain his throne. The mere recital of these events demonstrates the lack of mental balance which distinguished his character.

enjoyed quite an undeserved prestige abroad. For this period is one of the darkest in the history of the country. The nobles elected Wladislaus Jagiello, who since 1471 was king of Bohemia, because he proved himself a weak ruler in Bohemia. They started now to abolish one after the other the institutions created by Matthias, mindful only of their own interests and intent on strengthening their power. They first deprived the crown of the means of keeping up the standing army created by Matthias, and took other measures to concentrate into their hands all the power. They oppressed the peasants mercilessly, and persecuted the towns which were specially favoured in their development by Matthias. The ruinous effect of their misrule soon became felt. The sad conditions of the peasants, the corruption of the clergy, the hatred between the gentry and the nobility resulted in 1514 in a great rising of the peasants. These, led by George Dosza, were at first successful and took a frightful revenge on their oppressors. But the nobles, under the leadership of John Zapolya, soon got the upper hand and quelled the rising, committing

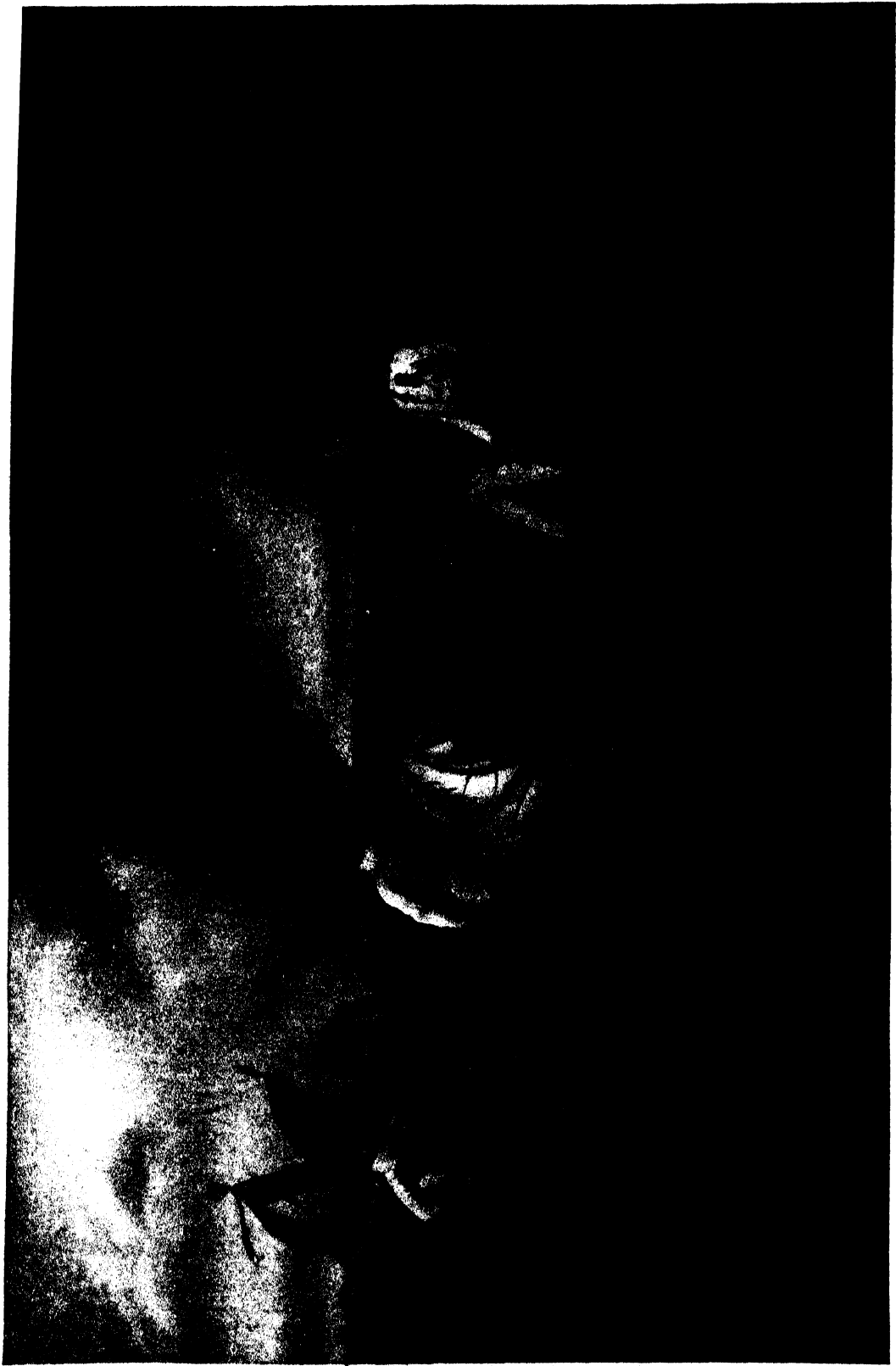


*From the painting]*

#### OFEN (BUDA) TAKEN FROM THE TURKS, 1686.

*[By Von Blasz.*

Charles V., Duke of Lorraine, was born in 1643 and received early experience of warfare. Being appointed a colonel in the Emperor's army, he took part in the battle of St. Gothard, at which he captured a Turkish standard. He took the field against the Turks again in 1683. At a critical time when Vienna was invested John Sobieski, king of Poland, joined him with an army, and the Turks were driven back in disorder. Continuing the offensive in Hungary, he laid siege to Ofen in 1684. The siege was resumed in 1686, and, though attempts had been made to relieve the besieged, the city was stormed on September 2nd, 1686.



*From the painting*

#### MEETING OF THE ALLIED MONARCHS AFTER LEIPZIG.

The great battle of Leipzig, which resulted in the complete overthrow of Napoleon and the liberation of Europe from his long domination, was in every sense a "Battle of the Nations." Austrians, Prussians, Russians and Swedes were in the great array which faced the French, and the three first were commanded in person by their sovereigns. The French losses were enormous, and though they secured their retreat they left more than thirty thousand prisoners in the hands of the Allies.

*[By Kraft.]*

terrible cruelties. The result of this rising was the complete enslavement of the Hungarian peasantry. The diet which met afterwards and framed the measures for the restoration of order is known in history as the "Savage Diet." The same spirit of hostility to the peasantry permeates the famous code of Hungarian law, known as the *Tripartitum*, which was approved by the king in the same year. This code of law is of special importance in the constitutional history of Hungary, for it defines the relations between the king and the people, which here meant the nobles, the relations between the nobles and the peasants, and the relations between Hungary and her dependent states. It establishes, amongst others, the principle that laws, in order to be valid, must have the consent both of the king and the "people."

Hungary, which in appearance was so formidable, was already ruined internally when Soleiman the Magnificent, the Sultan of Turkey, decided to attack her. In 1521 he conquered Belgrade, and the road to Buda now lay open. The nobles continued in their anarchic way. In 1526 Soleiman, having finished the conquest of Egypt, renewed his attack on Hungary. He met the Hungarian army in the plain of Mohács on the 29th of August, and after a two-hours' fight the Hungarians were annihilated. Their young king, Louis II., together with twenty-four thousand men, fell on the field of battle. Soleiman advanced on Buda, which he occupied on the 12th of September.

The disastrous battle of Mohács not only put an end to that independent Hungarian state which by six centuries of strenuous endeavour had become a factor in international politics, but also effected very important changes in the national life. The great number of nobles and prelates lost on the field of battle shook the organization both of Church and State to its foundations, and paved the way for constitutional change and the Reformed religion. One of the greatest political changes was that it forced Hungary into the arms of Austria.

Ferdinand of Austria, who had married the sister of Louis II., claimed the throne, and was elected king by a diet held at Pressburg. For it became recognized that the monarch who was emperor of Germany, archduke of Austria, king of Bohemia, must also be elected king of Hungary as the best defender of the country against the Turks. But another party elected John Zapolya, the prince of Transylvania, as king of Hungary. War between these rival kings ensued, which produced much misery in the country.

In 1541 the Sultan again invaded Hungary, occupied Buda, and the country was finally divided into three parts. The northern districts from Pressburg to Kashau were held by the House of Habsburg ;



LEOPOLD II.

The Emperor Leopold II. succeeded in 1790 to the task of governing dominions which were distracted by the troubles precipitated by the reforming zeal of Joseph II. During his short reign of two years he was faced with many difficulties—notably the new and critical situation created by the French Revolution—but showed himself a statesman of the first order.

Transylvania was governed by Magyar princes under the suzerainty of the Sultan; while the central region, comprising the greater part of the country, was occupied by the Turks. For nearly one hundred and fifty years Buda was the residence of a Turkish pasha as governor of the country. This period of the Turkish occupation has been compared to the protracted contest between the Spaniards and the Moors, and, as in that contest, there was an abundance of romantic incidents, of deeds of heroism, and of individual gallantry.

Such an incident was the siege of Szigetvár, one of the famous sieges in history. In 1566 Sultan



*From the portrait]*

*[By Fr. Amerling.]*

#### COUNT STEFAN SZECHENYI.

Szechenyi was a Hungarian patriot and statesman, a man of great natural ability and immense wealth, which he devoted to the service of his country. He was a strong Nationalist, but opposed the Republican policy of Kossuth, whose revolutionary doctrines were extremely distasteful to him. The outbreak of war with Austria in 1848 unhinged his mind, and he never recovered his reason. He shot himself in 1860.

retired from Hungary. The heroic resistance of Zrinyi brought their expedition to an end.

The Reformation had already found adherents in the country before the disaster of Mohács, but not in great numbers, because it came from Germany. But after the dismemberment of the country the Reformation made great strides, especially in Transylvania and in the regions occupied by the Turks. The successors of

Soleiman declared war against Maximilian of Habsburg and again invaded Hungary at the head of a numerous army. But his progress was stopped short before the small fortress of Szigetvár, which was defended by a small garrison of about three thousand men under the command of Nicholas Zrinyi. The heroic defenders inflicted on the Turks a loss of twenty thousand men, and delayed them for six weeks. When he saw that resistance was no longer possible, Zrinyi made a sortie from the citadel at the head of his remaining men, preferring death to surrender. Soleiman died a few days before this happened, and the Turks



*[In the National Portrait Gallery at Budapest.]*

#### COUNT BATTHYÁNY.

Count Louis Batthyány was a Moderate Liberal, desiring the independence of Hungary without separation from Austria. He was appointed Premier of the first Hungarian National Ministry in 1848. When the revolution broke out he exercised all his moderating influence in vain, and thereupon took no part in the war. Nevertheless he was seized by the victorious Austrians, condemned to death without proper trial, and shot on October 6th, 1849.



#### LOUIS KOSSUTH.

From his earliest years Kossuth identified himself with the cause of reform in Hungary, becoming more extreme as opposition hardened. He was the leader in the revolution of 1848, and prejudiced its chance of success by proposing the complete and final separation of Hungary from Austria. On the collapse of the insurrection he fled to Turkey, and spent the rest of his days advocating the cause of Hungarian independence in compulsory or voluntary exile.



*From the painting in the National Portrait Gallery at Budapest.*

## PETŐFI.

Petőfi, the patriot-poet of Hungary, was born in 1823. In 1849 he was killed, fighting for Hungarian freedom, in the battle of Segesvár, but although he was thus only twenty-six he had achieved an international reputation and his lyrics had marked the opening of a new era in Hungarian literature.

The defeat of the Turks under the walls of Vienna ended the revolt of Tököli, and was the beginning of the wars for the liberation of Hungary from the Turks. In 1686 Buda was captured, and a great part of Hungary and Transylvania was regained by Austrian arms. In 1687 the Diet declared the crown of Hungary hereditary in the House of Habsburg, and Hungary changed from an elective into an hereditary monarchy. But Leopold now simply sought to replace Turkish by Austrian rule. In fact, the policy he pursued was, as he himself said, "to impoverish, recatholicize, and Germanize" Hungary. No wonder the country was seething with discontent, and at the end of his reign the standard of revolt was raised. This revolt, led by Francis Rakóczy, went on with varying results until 1711, when the Emperor Joseph I. (1705-1711) concluded with the rebels the Peace of Szátmár. By this treaty the emperor undertook to recognize the ancient rights and privileges of the Magyars, and to grant full religious liberty; he also promised a full amnesty and the restitution of the confiscated properties.

Ferdinand, following the traditional policy of the Habsburgs, set themselves to uproot Protestantism in the regions governed by them, especially as Protestantism was now identical with Magyarism. The last years of the sixteenth century mark the highest point reached by Protestantism here. During the first half of the seventeenth century Transylvania, which under a succession of good rulers attained the highest point of its power, became the bulwark of the religious and political liberties of all the Magyars. On the other hand, the activity of the very clever archbishop Pázmány (1616-1637) brought about the conversion to Catholicism of nearly all the nobles in that part of Hungary ruled by the Habsburgs. The vassals followed suit, and in the middle of the seventeenth century Catholicism had regained a great number of adherents.

But the Habsburgs wished also to deprive the Magyars of their constitutional liberties, to which they clung tenaciously. The era of the strongest repression corresponds roughly with the reign of Leopold I. (1657-1705). Several conspiracies were formed against Leopold, which were, however, discovered and ruthlessly suppressed. But in 1677 the discontented Hungarians placed at their head Count Imre Tököli, who inflicted several defeats on the Austrian armies. In 1682 the Turks decided to openly help the rebels, and in 1683 a great Turkish army under Kara Mustapha invaded Austria and laid siege to Vienna.



OPENING OF THE HUNGARIAN PARLIAMENT IN 1848.

In the elections of 1846 the reforming party, with Kossuth at its head, was completely successful, and urged on the Emperor the acceptance of their demands, including the appointment of a ministry responsible to Parliament. The outbreak of revolution in Vienna forced Ferdinand to acquiesce, and Hungary ventured on the experiment of responsible government, Count Batthyány being the Premier and Kossuth his subordinate.



By the Peace of Szátmár the Hungarian nation became reconciled to the House of Habsburg. Charles IV. (1711-1740) confirmed the Peace of Szátmár, and by his constitutional government won the confidence of the people. He continued the war of liberation from the Turks, and took measures to organize and develop the country, which was exceedingly depopulated and impoverished. In 1723 the Diet voted the Pragmatic Sanction, which settled the succession to the throne on his daughter Maria Theresa, and determined the relations of Hungary with the hereditary dominions of the Habsburgs.

The House of Habsburg soon reaped the benefit of this conciliatory policy, for in the hour of its



FRANCIS JOSEPH I.

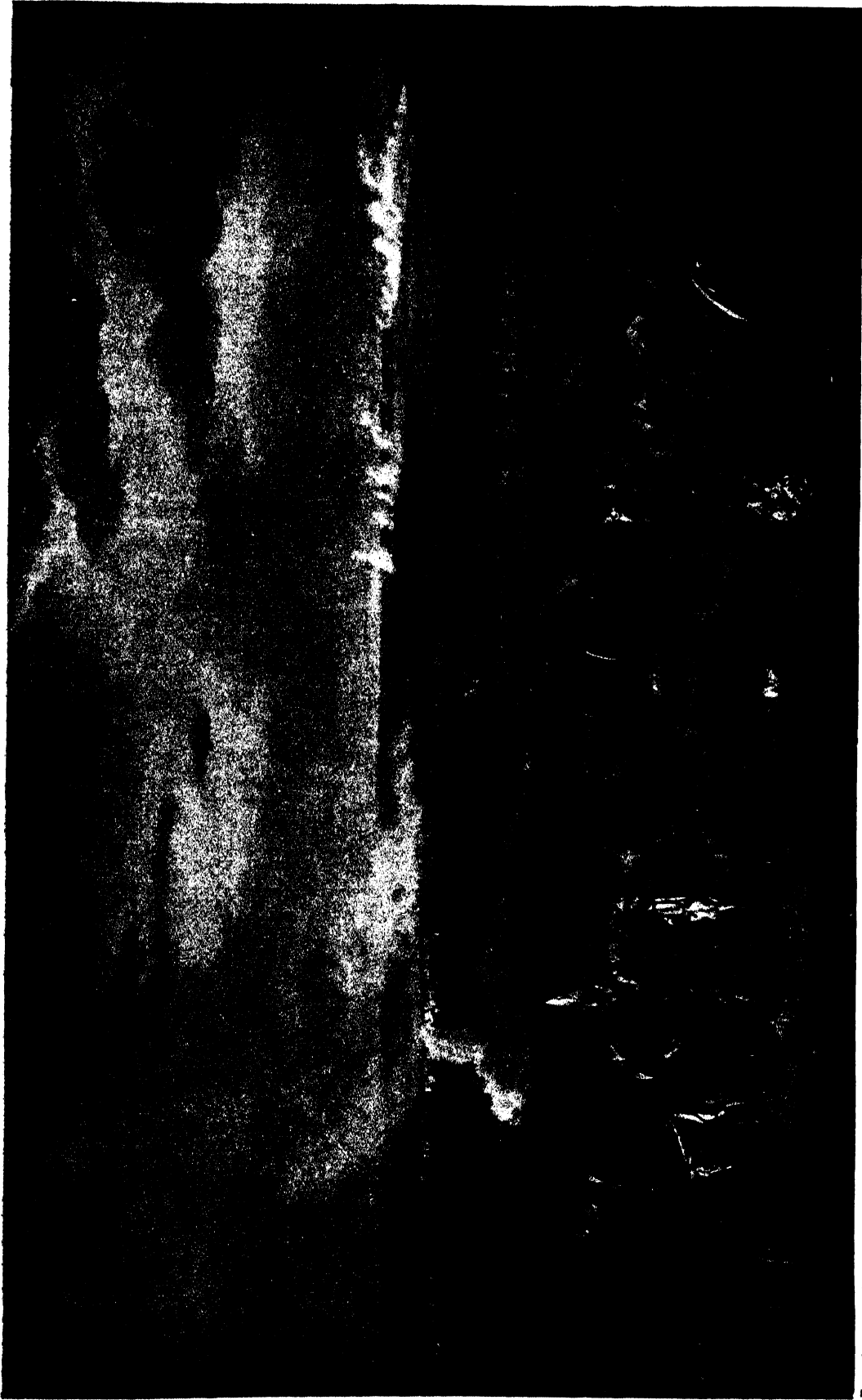
The Emperor Francis Joseph I. succeeded to the throne of Austria-Hungary in 1848 on the abdication of his uncle, Ferdinand I., when Hungary was attempting to secure her independence by force of arms. The interest of his reign lies in an appreciation of the fact that his personality has held the discordant elements together even when the empire was threatened with disruption.

greatest need the Hungarians saved the empire from disruption. When Maria Theresa was attacked from all sides the Hungarians to a man rallied round their young queen and saved her throne and dominions. In the long War of the Austrian Succession her main support was the Hungarian nation, who ungrudgingly poured forth their blood and treasure in the struggle. Maria Theresa never forgot the loyalty and chivalry shown by the Hungarians, and during her reign of forty years (1740-1780) she worked continuously for the intellectual and material welfare of the nation. Specially great were her achievements in the matter of education. She founded many schools, and based popular education on a solid foundation by devoting to it the wealth of the suppressed order of the Jesuits. She showed many favours to the nobles, whom she attracted to her court, but improved also the lot of the peasants by freeing them of many feudal burdens. She encouraged trade and agriculture, started an extensive programme of road-building, and granted to Hungary the seaport of Fiume.

But, as we have seen in the chapter on the Austrians, the reign of Maria Theresa begins the period of enlightened despotism, and, while she did not attack the Hungarian constitution, she simply put it aside. But she carried out her reforms with so much tact and moderation, that the Hungarians patiently endured her maternal despotism. During her reign the national spirit and the literary life made great advance. This national spirit was still more developed by the sweeping and well-meaning reforms of her son and successor, Joseph II. (1780-1790).

His ideal was to transform his heterogeneous dominions into one united German-speaking and German-thinking empire by brushing aside all local and national institutions. He first of all offended the Hungarians by refusing to be crowned king according to ancient ceremonies, and then proceeded to ignore the Hungarian constitution and to destroy all the ancient Magyar institutions. His most unpopular measures were: the language edict of 1784, which made German the official language of Hungary, and the suppression of the County assemblies, which to the Magyars represented the immemorial stronghold of their liberties. All classes were dissatisfied, and in face of the threatened revolt he was compelled to repeal most of his reforms before he died.

His successor, Leopold II. (1790-1792), won back the Magyars by his wise measures. From him they received the strongest assurance and expression of their liberties and constitutional rights. During the



*From the painting*

#### THE BATTLE OF TENESVAR.

In 1848, fired by the success of the Republicans in France, the Hungarians demanded complete political autonomy and independence. When their claims were rejected by Austria they broke into open insurrection, and at first obtained several victories over the Austrian troops. Next year Austria appealed to Russia for assistance, and Hungary was simultaneously invaded by armies of both nations. At Temesvar, on August 9th, 1849, the Hungarian patriots were signally defeated and their continued resistance was rendered impossible.

[By A. Adam.



*From the painting*

#### THE BATTLE OF CUSTOZZA.

*[By Giovanni Fattori.]*

In 1866 the Sardinians joined the Prussians in their attack on Austria, but whereas the Prussians were victorious everywhere, the Sardinians suffered a decisive defeat at Custoza on June 24th, 1866. The Sardinians were commanded by King Victor Emmanuel in person and greatly outnumbered the Austrians, under the Archduke Albert, but the Sardinian generalship was woefully deficient.

Napoleonic wars the Hungarians supported with all their strength their king, Francis I. (1792-1835), and this long struggle bound the Magyar nation more closely to the Habsburg dynasty. Thus when Napoleon, in 1809, in a proclamation called upon Hungary to declare her independence and elect another king, the appeal found no supporters in the country.

In 1815 the reaction which set in all over Europe extended its influence to Hungary. Francis I. decided to govern without the Diet. Although the nation was exhausted by the centuries of warfare, the national spirit began to awaken, and this new spirit found a leader in Count Stephen Széchenyi. "Prefer to think not that Hungary has been, but that Hungary shall be," was his motto. When the Diet was at last convoked in 1825, Count Széchenyi was the first man to address it in Magyar instead of Latin. This act was a bold innovation, and contributed greatly to the restoration of the national language to its rightful place. Under his influence a party was formed which strove for constitutional changes, for the abolition of the unjust privileges of the nobles, for the emancipation of the peasantry, and for other liberal reforms. His followers were recruited both amongst the



PRESSBURG.

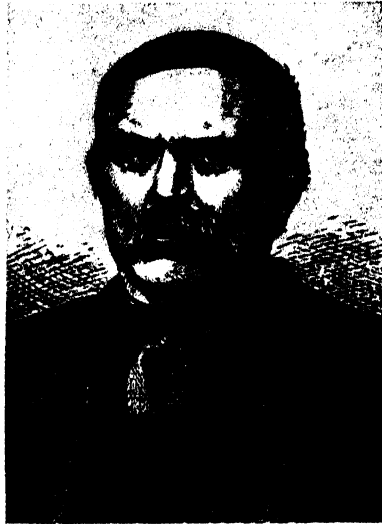
This beautiful city, picturesquely situated on the left bank of the Danube, has been the capital of Hungary from 1541 to 1748. Memorable throughout history is the sitting of the Diet, held here in 1741, at which the Hungarian nobles swore allegiance to their young queen, Maria Theresa, and at which they promised to help her in her life-and-death struggle with Frederick the Great of Prussia.

members of the nobility and amongst the growing band of intellectuals who were beginning to develop a national literature. Count Széchenyi was a wealthy man, and he used his wealth both for the intellectual progress and material welfare of his country. The Academy of Sciences at Budapest owes its existence to his munificence. The regulation of the Tisza and of the Danube, the establishment of the first steam navigation company on the Danube, the institution of the agricultural society and the creation of several industrial and commercial undertakings are some of the works connected with his name.

Count Széchenyi was anxious to bring about the political change of the country in conjunction with, and not in defiance of, the government of Vienna. After 1840 his popularity began to wane, as new men came to the front. Amongst them, Louis Kossuth soon became prominent through his great eloquence and brilliant literary powers. The persecution of the government only increased his popularity, and in 1841 he became the editor of a daily paper in Budapest, which soon became the most influential in the country. Kossuth attacked the privileges of the nobles and pleaded the cause of the middle and lower classes. His speeches and writings fostered a strong spirit of Magyar nationalism, and his influence over the masses became very great.

Kossuth was elected a member of the Diet, which assembled at the end of 1847, and which was determined to insist upon the introduction of extensive reforms. Meanwhile the February Revolution broke out in Paris, and on the 3rd of March Kossuth proposed in the Diet the appointment of a responsible cabinet. As the revolution spread rapidly to all parts of the Habsburg dominions, the Emperor Ferdinand acceded to the demand of the Diet. He appointed Count Louis Batthyány Prime Minister, and his cabinet included Kossuth, Count Széchenyi, Francis Déak, Baron Joseph Eötvös, and others. The Diet then voted a series of laws which abolished the old constitution, established parliamentary government and a responsible proclaimed the independence of Croatia-Slavonia under the sceptre of the Habsburgs. The course of events of the revolution, as already shown in the chapter on the Austrians, made possible the alliance between Jellachich and the Court of Vienna. And when the breach between the Hungarian government and that of Vienna became complete, Jellachich invaded Hungary on September 11th, 1848, at the head of thirty-six thousand troops.

The immediate result was to place the extreme revolutionaries in power at Pest. Count Batthyány still remained the head of the government, but Kossuth was really supreme. The advance of Jellachich



*In the National Portrait Gallery at Budapest.*

FRANCIS DEÁK (1803-1876).

Francis Déak, surnamed the "Sage," was the wisest and the most moderate amongst the statesmen to whom the creation of modern Hungary is due. The special work of Déak was the "Compromise" of 1867 with Austria, which made Hungary independent.

cabinet, emancipated the peasants, introduced equality before the law, liberty of the Press, liberty of religion, and other liberal measures. It also voted the incorporation of Transylvania with Hungary. These laws have become known as the March Laws, and their effect was to make Hungary a completely independent country of Austria.

But the Slav nationalities and the Rumanians resented the domination which the new constitution secured to the Magyars as threatening their national existence. And these nationalities rose in revolt against the Magyars. Baron Jellachich, who was appointed on April 14th Ban of Croatia, refused to obey the government of Budapest, and convoked a diet at Agram, which



PARLIAMENT HOUSES, BUDAPEST.

In building their magnificent new Parliament Houses the Hungarians paid Great Britain the compliment of taking the Houses of Parliament in London for their model. The great building was completed as recently as 1896.

as far as Lake Balaton had not been checked, the Magyar troops offering no opposition. The Palatine, the Archduke Stephen, resigned his office and Field-Marshal Count Lamberg, a Hungarian magnate devoted to the court, was sent in his place. But on the motion of Kossuth, the Diet called on the army not to obey the new commander-in-chief. Count Lamberg, whilst crossing the bridge to Buda, was dragged from his carriage by the mob and torn to pieces. This made the rupture with the court at Vienna inevitable. Hungary was placed under martial law, and Jellachich was appointed Viceroy and commander of all the forces. The Hungarians now



*In the possession of the 1st General Insurance Co. at Budapest.*  
COUNT ANDRASSY.

Count Andrassy was born in 1823. Liberal in sentiment, he took a prominent part in the revolution of 1848 and was exiled, but returned to his country after the proclamation of a general amnesty nine years later. In 1867 he was Prime Minister of Hungary, and distinguished his tenure of the office by emancipating the Jews.

hastened to send a force to help the revolutionists of Vienna. This was defeated at Schwechat on the 30th of October, and after Prince Windischgrätz had crushed the revolution in Vienna, he invaded Hungary.

Meanwhile the Emperor Ferdinand resigned, and his nephew, Francis Joseph, the present king, a youth of eighteen, ascended the throne on the 2nd of December. On the 7th the Hungarian Diet refused to acknowledge him, "as without the knowledge and consent of the Diet no one could sit on the Hungarian throne," and called the nation to arms. From now on Louis Kossuth was the ruler of Hungary.

Prince Windischgrätz



*Painted by Blodtren.*

## THE BATTLE OF SADOWA.

*[Photo by the B. P. Co.]*

The Battle of Sadowa, or Königgrätz, fought on July 3rd, 1866, was as much a political triumph as a military success for the Prussians, for it was so complete as virtually to end the war. Austria was thrust out of the Germanic Confederation and Prussia acknowledged as the leader of the German states. The victory was in large part due to the superiority of the Prussian needle-gun over the Austrian percussion-gun.



*From the painting*

#### THE BATTLE OF LISSA.

The Battle of Lissa, fought on July 20th, 1866, was one of the surprises of naval history. The Austrian fleet was inferior to the Italian in numbers and armament, and the victory of the Austrians was entirely due to the superior tactical efficiency of their officers and the leadership of a man of genius, Admiral Tegetthof.

*[By Bickel.]*

began his advance on the 15th of December, and on the 5th of January, 1849, he occupied Pest. The Hungarian Government and Diet retired to Debreczen. After General Dembinski fought the bloody and indecisive Battle of Kapolna (February 26th-27th), General Arthur Görgei, who had distinguished himself by a masterly retreat of his army when pursued by a vastly superior force, was appointed commander-in-chief. Ably supported by Generals Klapka and Damjanich, he led his troops from victory to victory, until on the 25th of May Pest was again in the hands of the Hungarians.

Meanwhile the Vienna Government had issued (March 4th, 1849) a proclamation establishing a constitution for the whole monarchy, of which Hungary was to be little more than the largest of several provinces, and which obliterated all its ancient institutions. In answer to this the Hungarian Diet proclaimed (April 14th) the independence of Hungary, declared the House of Habsburg for ever excluded from the throne, and elected Kossuth president of the Hungarian Republic. This was a fatal mistake, for it produced a breach between Kossuth and Görgei, the head of the army.

Following the defeats of the imperial forces the Emperor Francis Joseph accepted the help which the Tsar of Russia had offered him. The Austro-Russian armies of two hundred and seventy thousand men soon proved victorious against the smaller forces of the Hungarians. General Haynau, now commander-in-chief, first defeated them during the later part of June. The government was compelled to flee from Pest to Szeged and then to Arad. The greatest battle of this campaign was fought at Temesvar on August 9th, and the Hungarians under the command of Dembinski were utterly routed. Görgei was now appointed dictator, and on the 13th of August he surrendered the remnant of his army to the Russian General Rüdiger at Világos. The remaining Hungarian armies followed his example, and either surrendered or disbanded. Only the fortress of Komárom, defended by General Klapka, continued to hold out for another six weeks, before it capitulated.

The revolution was now crushed, and from October 1849 to July 1850 Hungary was governed by martial law. General Haynau presided over the bloody assizes of Pest and Arad, and the long roll of



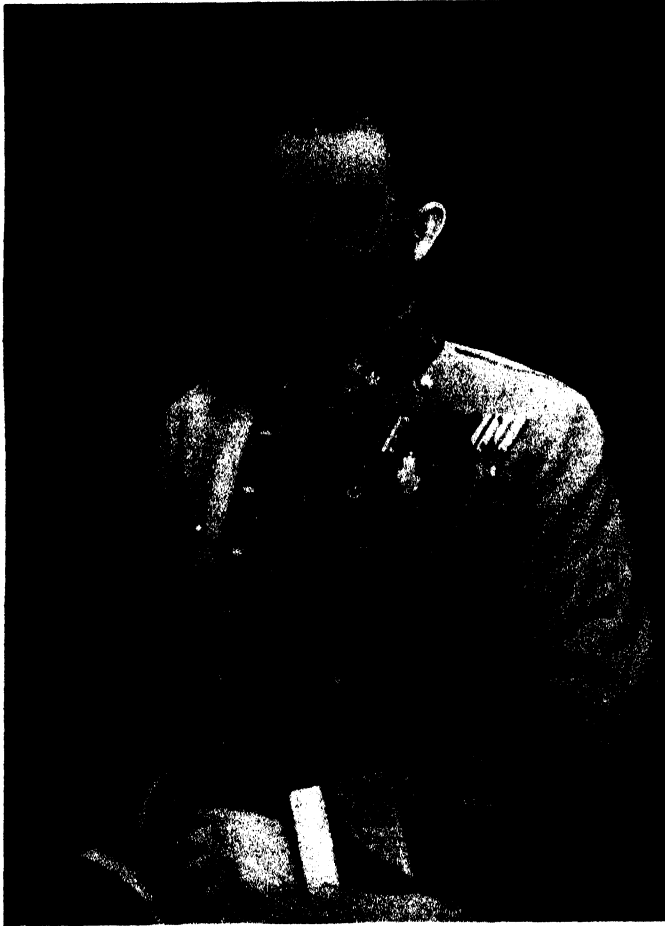
THE EMPRESS ELISABETH.

A thrill of horror ran through the world when the news was announced of the brutal assassination of the Emperor Francis Joseph's wife, Elisabeth, at Geneva in the summer of 1898. She was walking down the gangway to a lake steamer when an Italian anarchist sprang forward and stabbed her with a file. Only nine years before the Emperor's only son had died a violent death.



Hungarian patriots condemned to death was headed by such names as Count Batthyány and General Damjanich, the wounded leader of the "Redcaps," the famous student brigade. Those who escaped death found a refuge in England, Turkey and the United States.

Croatia-Slavonia, Transylvania and the Banat of Temesvar were separated from Hungary and granted local government. For the next ten years the régime here, just as in the other parts of the Habsburg monarchy, was absolutist. The defeat of Austria in the war of 1859 compelled the government to grant the federalist constitution of 1861, which, however, did not satisfy Hungary. For several years there were protests, concessions and negotiations, until the other defeat of Austria in 1866 compelled the emperor to make terms with the Hungarians.



THE ARCHDUKE FERDINAND.

The Archduke Ferdinand, whose tragic assassination at Serajevo in June, 1914, was the nominal cause of the most devastating war in history, was a very striking personality. He had associated himself with the policy of Austrian aggrandisement and expansion in the Balkans and elsewhere.

Summoned to Vienna, Francis Déak, the wisest statesman of modern Hungary, in answer to the emperor's question, "What would satisfy Hungary?" replied: "Nothing more after Sadowa than before." He insisted on the granting to Hungary of the constitution and March Laws of 1848. After prolonged negotiations between the emperor, Baron Beust, and Déak, an agreement was reached on February 8th, 1867. This is the famous compromise which established the Dual Monarchy, as it exists to-day. A Hungarian cabinet was formed under the presidency of Count Julius Andrassy, who became later Foreign Minister of Austria-Hungary. On June 7th, 1867, Francis Joseph was crowned King of Hungary according to the ancient ceremonies, and this act sealed the reconciliation between the king and the Hungarian people.

By the compromise Austria and Hungary became separate states with certain common affairs, for which common institutions are provided. These are: foreign affairs; the army and navy, over which the emperor-king has full control; and the expenses for these common affairs. Other matters, which include customs, currency, the amount of contribution of each state to the common expenses, the Austro-Hungarian Bank, were to be arranged every

ten years by agreement between the two governments and ratified by the respective parliaments.

Since the compromise of 1867 has been concluded Hungary has made gigantic strides in her material and economic development. Under the long cabinet directed by Count Kálmán Tisza (1872-1890) a series of useful laws have been enacted which have transformed Hungary into a modern state. In her relations with Austria, Hungary has gained a preponderating position which has on many critical occasions influenced the foreign policy of the Dual Monarchy, and even the internal policy of Austria. But of late years there has grown a strong party, headed by Francis Kossuth, the son of the hero of the Revolution of 1848, which has demanded a more complete separation from Austria, specially on the economic side. On several occasions deadlocks have arisen when the ten years' agreement on these questions between

the two countries had to be renewed, but in the end an agreement has always been reached. Of greater importance has been the demand of this party to substitute Magyar for German in the words of command in the army.

This army language question is one of the questions that has agitated Hungary for the last fifteen years; but the king has strenuously opposed this demand, which would tamper with the unity of the army.

Parliamentary life has almost been at a standstill since the beginning of this century owing to the obstructionist tactics of the various parties, and the king kingdom; that it occupies the central as well as the richest part of the country; and that it is the best developed, both economically and culturally. But just as for centuries the Magyars had



A PEASANT GIRL OF MUNKACS.

Tradition says that it was near to Munkács that the Hungarians first entered the country in the ninth century. The town lies two hundred and twenty miles to the east of Budapest.

has on several occasions appointed cabinets which governed without parliament. Amongst the statesmen who have come to the front during this troubled period is Count Stephen Tisza.

But the most important problem in Hungary, with its heterogeneous and polyglot population, is the question of nationalities. The aim of the Hungarian statesmen has been to transform this polyglot kingdom into a homogeneous Magyar state, and this policy of Magyarization has been carried on ceaselessly, and in many instances by ruthless methods. It is true that the Magyar nation forms nearly half of the total population of the



MAIZE—THE HUNGARIAN PEASANTS' BREAD, MEAT AND BEER—HANGING FROM THE EYES OF A COTTAGE.

The Hungarians export very large quantities of maize, or Indian corn, from the Danubian provinces and from Hungary, where it corresponds to the potato of the Irishman. Although unsuitable for bread-making, the maize is deprived of its gluten by the peasants, who make from it oswego, or cornflour. Maize is also eaten by them as a vegetable, and when allowed to ferment produces a highly intoxicating beer.

# DATES OF SPANISH HISTORY—continued

CHIEF HISTORIC PERIODS.	DATE.	SOVEREIGN.	CHIEF EVENTS.
MODERN PERIOD. HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.	A.D. 1516-1556	CHARLES I. (V.)	1517. Charles, grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella, reaches Madrid as Charles I. 1519. He becomes the Emperor Charles V. of Germany. 1519-21. Conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards under Cortes. 1521. The rising of the <i>Comuneros</i> crushed at the Battle of Villalar. 1525. Francis I., King of France, captured by the Spaniards at the Battle of Pavia. 1535. Capture of Tunis. 1556. Charles abdicates and retires to the monastery of Yuste.
	1556-1598	PHILIP II.	1557. Defeat of the French by the Spaniards at the Battle of Saint Quentin. 1558. Death of Charles V. and of Mary of England, Philip's first wife. 1568. Outbreak of Moorish revolt in the old kingdom of Granada. 1571. Defeat of the Turks at the naval battle of Lepanto. 1580. Conquest of Portugal by the Spaniards. 1588. Defeat and destruction of the Invincible Armada by the English. 1596. Cadiz sacked by the English and Dutch. 1598. Death of Philip II. at the Escorial.
	1598-1621	PHILIP III.	1604. Peace made with England. [from Spain. 1609. Twelve years' truce with the Netherlands. Decree expelling the Moors 1618. Beginning of the Thirty Years' War. 1621. Death of Philip III.]
	1621-1665	PHILIP IV.	1621. Renewal of the war between Spain and the Netherlands. 1623. Visit of Prince Charles of England and the Duke of Buckingham to Madrid. 1625. English expedition to Cadiz. 1635. War breaks out between France and Spain. 1640. Insurrection in Catalonia. Portugal recovers its independence. 1643. Condé defeats the Spaniards at Rocroi. 1648. Peace of Münster. Spain recognizes the independence of the Netherlands. 1655. Capture of Jamaica by the English. 1665. Death of Philip IV.
	1665-1700	CHARLES II.	Charles succeeds at the age of four; the Queen-Mother acts as regent. 1698. First Treaty of Partition. (Dynasty. 1700. Second Treaty of Partition. Death of Charles, the last of the Hapsburg
HOUSE OF BOURBON.	1700-1746	PHILIP V.	Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. of France, succeeds under Charles's will. 1702. Outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession. Capture of Gibraltar by the English (1704). Battles of Blenheim (1704), Ramillies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), Malplaquet (1709). Peace of Utrecht (1713). 1718. Spanish wars of acquisition in Mediterranean lead to formation of Quadruple Alliance.
	1746-1759 1759-1788	FERDINAND VI. CHARLES III.	1746. Philip abdicates, but reascends the throne on his son's death the same year. 1740. Outbreak of the War of the Austrian Succession. 1746. Death of Philip. Ferdinand dies childless after a peaceful reign. His brother Charles succeeds him. 1762. England declares war against Spain. Havana and Manila captured by 1763. Peace of Paris. Florida ceded to England. [English fleets. 1767. Expulsion of the Jesuits from Spain.
	1788-1808	CHARLES IV.	1779. Spain declares war on England. Great siege of Gibraltar (1779-1783). 1788. Death of Charles III. 1793. War between France and Spain. French invasion of Spain. 1795. Peace of Basel. Godoy, "Prince of the Peace." 1796. Spain allied with France in war against England. 1797. Spanish fleet defeated at the Battle of St. Vincent. 1802. Peace of Amiens between England, France and Spain. 1803. Renewal of the war between England and France. 1804. Spain declares war on England. 1805. English naval victories at Cape Finisterre and Trafalgar. 1808. The French in Spain. Abdication of Charles. Charles's son Ferdinand renounces his rights in favour of Napoleon, who gives the crown to his brother Joseph Bonaparte.
	1808	FERDINAND VII.	
	1808-1814	JOSEPH [BONAPARTE]	Peninsular War. 1808. Sir John Moore's campaign. 1809. Battle of Corunna and death of Sir John Moore. Battles of Talavera (1809), Busaco (1810), Albuera (1811), Salamanca (1812), Vitoria (1813). Wellington crosses the Pyrenees. Battle of Toulouse (1814). 1810. Beginnings of the revolts in the Spanish-American colonies. 1812. Constitution of Cadiz.
BOURBON RESTORATION.	1814-1833	FERDINAND VII.	1814. French expelled from Spain and Ferdinand VII. restored to the throne. Constitution of Cadiz abolished. 1820. Revolution and Civil War. 1823. The French overrun Spain. The Cortes remove to Cadiz, with Ferdinand as a prisoner. Fall of Cadiz and release of Ferdinand. Reactionary rule [ensues. 1830. Birth of Ferdinand's daughter Isabella.
	1833-1868	ISABELLA II.	1833. Death of Ferdinand VII. The Queen-Mother acts as regent. 1834. Outbreak of First Carlist War, in favour of Ferdinand's brother Charles. 1837. Progressive Constitution replaces the Constitution of 1812. 1841. Military rising. The Queen-Mother replaced as regent by General Espartero. 1843. Espartero driven out of office. Isabella declared to be of age. 1846. Marriage of Isabella. 1854. Revolution and restoration of the Constitution of 1837. 1859. War with Morocco. 1865. War with Chile and Peru. 1868. Revolution and flight of Isabella from Spain.
INTERREGNUM. HOUSE OF SAVOY.	1868-1870 1870-1873	AMADEO	Provisional government under Serrano. 1870. Amadeo of Aosta elected king. Assassination of General Prim. 1872. Outbreak of Second Carlist War. 1873. Abdication of Amadeo.
REPUBLIC. BOURBON RESTORATION.	1873-1874 1874-1885	ALPHONSO XII.	1873. Republic proclaimed. 1874. Alfonso, son of Isabella II., proclaimed king. 1876. End of the Second Carlist War. 1883. Death of Alfonso XII. The Queen-Mother acts as regent. 1886. Birth of Alfonso XIII.
	1886-19—	ALPHONSO XIII.	1893. Insurrection in Cuba. 1898. U.S. cruiser <i>Maine</i> blown up in Havana harbour. War between Spain and the United States. Spain loses her colonial empire in the New World. 1902. Alfonso comes of age. 1906. Marriage of Alfonso to Princess Ena of Battenberg. 1917. War between Spain and Morocco. 1912. Assassination of the Premier, Canalejas.

## CHAPTER XXI

*THE SPANISH.* By HENRY THOMAS, M.A., D.Litt.

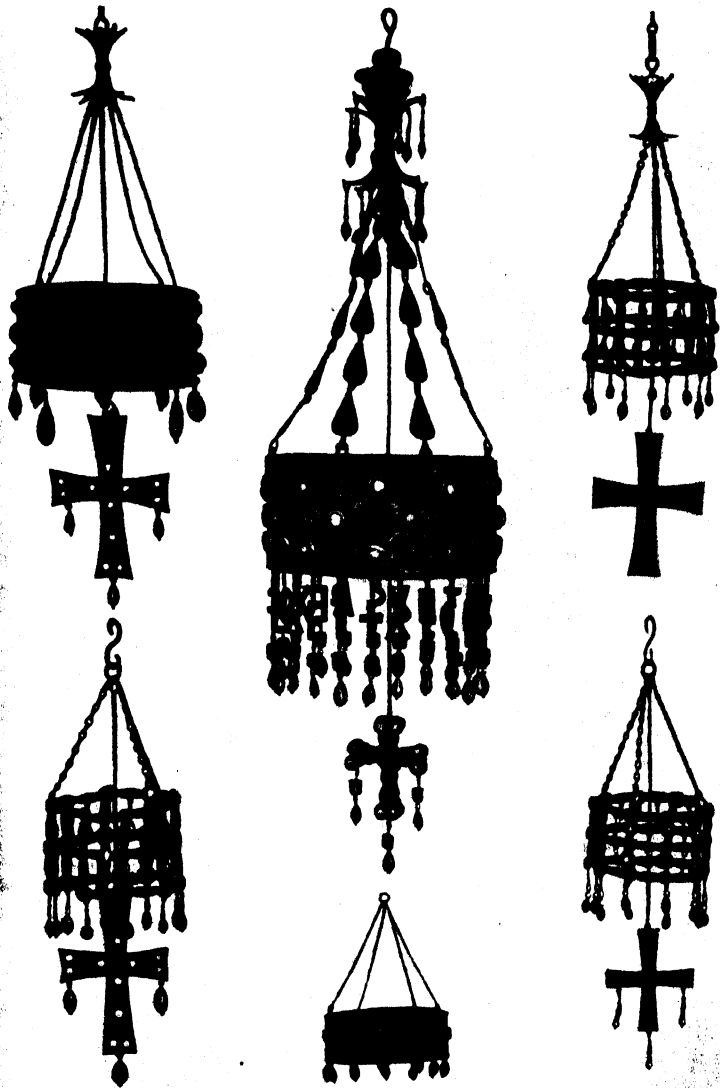
BEFORE we study the history of a people we must consider the region they inhabit, for history is largely influenced by geographical conditions. The countries we now call Spain and Portugal together form a large peninsula in the south-western corner of Europe, joined to the neighbouring country of France by an isthmus which stretches from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean.

Protected throughout the whole length of this isthmus by the lofty chain of the Pyrenees, and surrounded on all other sides by the sea, this peninsula seems at first sight destined by nature to form a united country, secure from outside attack.

But Spain is one of the most mountainous countries in Europe, with a mean elevation second only to that of Switzerland. High ranges of mountains divide the country into a number of districts, between which communication is still difficult.

This isolation favours the formation of separate units of people, and impedes their combined action against a common foe from without; and so, in spite of its protected position, Spain has suffered more from the invader than any other country of western Europe, and only for a very brief period of its history have its inhabitants been united under a single government.

The present inhabitants of Spain are a complex people, the result of a succession of invasions from the north and south, each followed by a greater or less degree of fusion between invaders and invaded. As a political entity, they date back no more than five centuries, and the history of Spain during the first two thousand years we know anything definite about it is the story of the rise and fall of various races which have gone to make up the present composite nation.



THE CROWNS OF THE VISIGOTH KING, RECCESWINTH, AND HIS FAMILY.

These most interesting crowns of gold, profusely set with pearls and other precious stones, were found near Toledo in 1858. They appear to have been given at some time as votive offerings to churches, for which purpose chains were attached to the upper rim, whilst from the lower hung pearls, sapphires and, in the case of Recceswinth's crown, jewelled letters reading: "Reccesvinthus Rex Offeret."

## THE ANCIENT PERIOD

OUR general ignorance of the early inhabitants of Spain is conveniently veiled behind the customary division of the peninsula among three separate peoples: (1) The Iberians, ultimately an Asiatic race reaching Spain from the south, at a pre-historic date. The modern Basques, speaking a language unconnected with the Indo-European group, are regarded by some as an independent remnant of this race, though they may belong to an even earlier stock. (2) The Celts, another Asiatic race, arriving from the north between the sixth and fourth centuries B.C. (3) The Celtiberians, the result, as the name is intended to suggest, of the fusion of the other two races. Roughly speaking, the Iberians in the end came to occupy the eastern, the Celts the western, and the Celtiberians the central portion of the country; but these



The last remnants of Spain's once vast empire vanished with the Spanish-American War of 1898. But the Spanish-speaking republics of Central and South America, and of islands such as Cuba and the Philippines, are a tribute to the great extent of Spain's former conquests.

divisions, and indeed the formation of the mixed race, were only reached after long and obscure struggles between the invading races.

Meantime, we have evidence of other peoples settling in the peninsula. The Phœnicians, at a time when the maritime trade of the Mediterranean was in their hands, established commercial settlements at various points along the coast of Spain. The earliest and most important of these posts became the modern Cadiz, reputed to date back to the eleventh century B.C., and to be the oldest established city in Europe. Later, when from the eighth century B.C. onwards Greece entered upon a career of colonization, we find Greek trading stations established in Spain, mainly on the north-eastern coast. The names of some of them are still preserved—Castellón de Ampurias, for instance, near the French frontier, recalls the ancient Emporion, coins of which with Greek and Iberian inscriptions still exist.

In spite of minor struggles with the natives and with each other, these Greek and Phœnician colonies benefited Spain. They developed the trade of the country, and introduced some of the advantages of



*From the painting*

#### THE CONVERSION OF RECCARED.

*[By Minot Degrain.]*

By the sixth century the Visigoths had established themselves firmly in Spain, but the process of romanization was not consummated until they adopted Christianity, the official religion of Rome, in the seventh century. In the reign of Reccared, who succeeded in 586, Roman Catholicism was adopted as the official religion of the Visigoths also, and a commencement was made of that intimate relation between Church and State which is the characteristic feature of Spanish history.



*Painted specially for this work*

*[By B. Granville Baker.]*

#### ALPHONSO OF ARAGON LEADS AN ARMY AGAINST THE MOORS.

Alphonso I. of Aragon, who has earned the pseudonym of "The Fighter," devoted his reign to incessant wars against the Moors. Fortunately for him the power of the Moors, for internal reasons, was on the wane, and he was moderately successful. He won a famous victory at Cutanda in 1120 and further victories in 1133, but failed to capture Braga next year and died soon after.

the eastern Mediterranean civilization. Their influence, however, did not extend very far inland, and of course they never dominated the country. But the Phœnician settlements were eventually responsible for a period of foreign domination in Spain.

The Phœnicians of Cadiz having quarrelled with the neighbouring tribes at a time when the power of their motherland had waned, they naturally turned for aid to their kinsmen of Carthage, the most powerful of the daughter states of Phœnicia. Then happened what has so often happened since, both in Spain and elsewhere. Having once intervened and so obtained a footing in Spain, the Carthaginians ended by bringing almost the whole peninsula more or less into subjection, including the Phœnician colonists whom they had come over to assist. The final subjugation came in the third century B.C., after the Carthaginians had been driven out of Sicily by the Romans in the First Punic War (242 B.C.). Hamilcar Barca, the Carthaginian general and statesman, conceived the plan of occupying Spain as a compensation for the loss of Sicily, and as a recruiting ground for troops. The conquest was begun by Hamilcar Barca, the reputed founder of Barcelona, continued by his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, the founder of the Carthaginian capital Carthago Nova (the modern Cartagena), and completed by Hamilcar's son, the great Hannibal. This last in 219 B.C. laid siege to the important city of Saguntum, which fell after a memorable defence, the inhabitants finally setting fire to their city and perishing rather than fall into the victor's hands. The siege is, however, memorable for more than its heroic defence. It took place in defiance of Rome, with which Saguntum was allied, and it thus led to the Second Punic War (218-201 B.C.), in which the power of Carthage was broken, and to the entry of the Romans into the Spanish peninsula. In the course of the war the Carthaginians were driven out of Spain (206 B.C.), leaving here, as elsewhere, practically no trace of their influence.

The expulsion of the Carthaginians from Spain involved the Romans in the military occupation and eventual subjugation of the peninsula ; and so the presence of the Carthaginians in Spain led to the Roman occupation, just as the presence of the Phœnicians had led to the Carthaginian occupation.

The full story of the Roman occupation of Spain is a matter of Roman history, but the Romans left such an indelible mark upon the country that some of the main facts must be mentioned here. After the expulsion of the Carthaginians, the need for a safe boundary to their empire led the Romans to undertake the complete pacification of Spain. Though pursued relentlessly, this object was only gradually achieved. The Romans experienced little opposition from the coast districts of the south and east, but the native tribes in the centre and the west struggled persistently against them. Aided by the mountainous nature of the country, which favoured guerilla warfare, the tribes of the interior were in a constant state of ferment, at times in open and prolonged revolt. The fiercest of these uprisings, due mainly to Roman exactions, was that begun in 149 B.C. by the western tribes under the redoubtable chief Viriathus. More than one Roman army was cut to pieces before Viriathus was murdered in his sleep by some of his own followers. After that the struggle dragged on, culminating in the siege of the strong and important northern city of Numantia, where the indomitable spirit of the Spaniards was displayed. For some time the Numantines fought with success, till the younger Scipio, Rome's best general, blockaded them within their walls (133 B.C.). Reduced to extremity by hunger and thirst, they emulated their countrymen of Saguntum, and setting fire to their city, perished either in the fight or by mutual slaughter, leaving Scipio in possession of nothing but corpses and smoking ruins.

Between the intervals of suppressing native revolts, Rome fought out her own civil wars partly on Spanish soil. The great Julius Cæsar had in 61 B.C. fought against the unconquered tribes of the



*Painted specially for this work*

[By B. Granville Baker.]

## A PILGRIMAGE TO SANTIAGO.

In the Middle Ages the city of Santiago was of European repute and a great resort for pilgrims, owing to its association with St. James (San Jago), whose bones were discovered there, according to legend, by the Bishop of Tria in the ninth century. Compostella is a corruption of Campus Stellæ, the "field of a star," the bishop having been guided to the place by a star.



north-west, and it was at his last great battle in the south of Spain (at Munda, near the modern Ronda) in 45 B.C. that he made himself undisputed master of Rome by defeating the sons of his dead rival Pompey.

Not till the early imperial days was Spain—after some two centuries of contact with Rome—completely brought under the Roman rule, the Emperor Augustus finally subduing the outstanding north-western tribes in 19 B.C. Many of the modern towns of this district—Saragossa (Cæsar Augusta), Astorga (Asturica Augusta) and Braga (Bracara Augusta), as well as Merida (Emerita Augusta) and Badajoz (Pax Augusta)—owe their rise to Augustus, who also divided the country into three provinces, one of which—Lusitania—foreshadows the modern Portugal. For four centuries Spain remained part of the Roman empire, enjoying a period of progress and development which only declined with the decline of Rome. During



MAHOMMED BEN ALAHMAR PAYING HOMAGE TO FERDINAND III.

In the thirteenth century the work of driving the Moors from Spain was prosecuted vigorously. Ferdinand III., on whom, as King of Castile, devolved the duty of leading the crusade, was everywhere successful. One by one the Moorish chieftains surrendered, and even the Moorish King of Granada was compelled to acknowledge his suzerainty.

all this time the Romans, by settlement, marriage and absorption, so imposed their civilization upon the country that it became "more Roman than Rome itself," and provided more than one Roman emperor. The language of the Romans, in spite of succeeding invasions, has persisted to this day, being spoken in developed forms throughout the peninsula. Roman law too was established throughout the country. But the Romans benefited Spain in more material ways. Some of the modern roads are due to them, while many of their architectural monuments still survive, the most notable perhaps being the bridge of Alcántara and the aqueduct of Segovia.

The Roman religion became the official religion of Spain, but Christianity was early introduced there, and made considerable progress from the second century onwards, to the accompaniment of the usual persecutions and martyrdoms, and, especially in the fourth and fifth centuries, rather more than the usual



From the painting]

ALONSO DE GUZMAN THROWS HIS DAGGER TO DON JUAN.

[By S. Martinez Cabello.

Alonso de Guzman, who had gained a great reputation in wars with the Moors, captured Tarifa and was immediately besieged in that fortress by the Infante Don Juan had allied himself in the hope of dethroning his brother Sancho. Don Juan had seized Guzman's little son, and calling up to the ramparts threatened to kill him if Guzman did not surrender. But Guzman's loyalty was stronger than his affection, and throwing down his dagger to Don Juan he told him to do his worst. Don Juan murdered the boy, but the town was not surrendered.



[From the painting]

[By Martinez Cabells.]

## THE COURT OF DON PEDRO THE CRUEL.

Pedro the Cruel obtained his unenviable sobriquet by his merciless tyranny in Castile—a tyranny exercised by means of extortionate officials and a mercenary bodyguard. Nor did he despise cold-blooded murder of his principal opponents as an instrument of policy. He was finally dethroned and killed by his brother, Henry of Trastámara.

number of heresies, owing partly to pagan survivals. It should be mentioned in this connexion that after the fall of Jerusalem many Jews settled in Spain.

During the Roman occupation Spain had been invaded by the Franks in the north as well as raided by African pirates in the south, but both had been easily repelled. When, however, in 409 Rome itself was sacked by the barbarians from the north under Alaric, Spain—like England at the same time—deprived of the support of Rome, fell an easy victim to savage northern tribes. In the year that Rome fell, Spain was overrun by hordes of Vandals, Alans and Sueves, who ravaged the whole country. Five years later, in 414, the Visigoths under Alaric's successor Ataulph, who had married the sister of the Emperor Honorius, entered Spain as allies of Rome to drive out the previous invaders. For the next three centuries Spain was in a state of constant turmoil, the ravages of invaders and the quarrels of rival hordes being followed by civil wars and struggles between kings and nobles, by all of which the unification and progress achieved under Roman rule was nullified, and the country so enfeebled that it fell an easy victim to the next great invasion. Most of the struggles during these three hundred years mattered only to those who took part in them. Many of the kings are mere names. It is significant of the state of the country that of over thirty Visigothic kings known to us, a quarter were murdered. It is both impossible and unnecessary to deal with all these here; we need only concern ourselves with the chief figures and movements.

Ataulph, who entered Spain in 414 at the head of the Visigoths to drive out the Vandals, Alans and Sueves, was soon murdered. So, too, was his successor. But Wallia, the next leader, carried on Ataulph's work, and after scattering these tribes into the remoter districts, established the Visigothic kingdom which, till towards the middle of the sixth century, had its seat of government in the south of France. In 428 the majority of the Vandals, occupying the south of Spain, passed over into Africa. The Sueves,

who absorbed the Alans, long continued to cause trouble, but they were again crushed by Theodoric II. in 456, and by his brother Euric, who succeeded him and reigned from 466 to 485. Although nominally acting in Rome's interest, both these kings ended by defying her authority, a task rendered easier for Euric by the fall of the western Roman empire in 476.

The next king of any importance is Theudis (531-548). Under pressure from the Franks he made Seville his headquarters, being thus the first king to establish his seat of government in Spain. Shortly after this transference of the Visigothic headquarters to Seville we reach the two most important of their kings. Leovigild (567-586), a warrior and organizer, completely subjugated the Sueves of the north-west, and was the first to enforce his authority over the whole peninsula. The Visigoths were now in Spain what the Romans had been—a ruling minority over a large native population—with the difference that the Visigoths did not mingle with the subject races as the Romans had done. A great gulf between the two was their religion. The official religion of the Visigoths was Arianism, a heretical form of Christianity, which denied the divinity of Christ and the mystery of the Trinity. The native population was of the orthodox Catholic faith. To remedy the weakness caused by the division of the country into two classes, Leovigild sought to unify the religion—by converting the whole population to Arianism. His son Reccared (586-601) was more tolerant. Seeing the necessity for the support of the Church, and moved by the preaching of Saint Leander, he arranged a meeting of the bishops of both parties to discuss the merits of Arianism and Catholicism. When the meeting pronounced in favour of the latter, he himself, together with his wife and household and many of the Visigothic nobles, was publicly converted to the Catholic faith at a council held in Toledo (589), thus becoming celebrated in history as the first Catholic king of Spain.

Reccared decided that what was good for himself was good for his subjects, and his forcible conversion of his followers to orthodoxy and his official recognition of the ecclesiastical authority foreshadowed



*From the painting]*

*[By V. Borrás.*

## MARIA DE MOLINA REPELLING THE NOBLES.

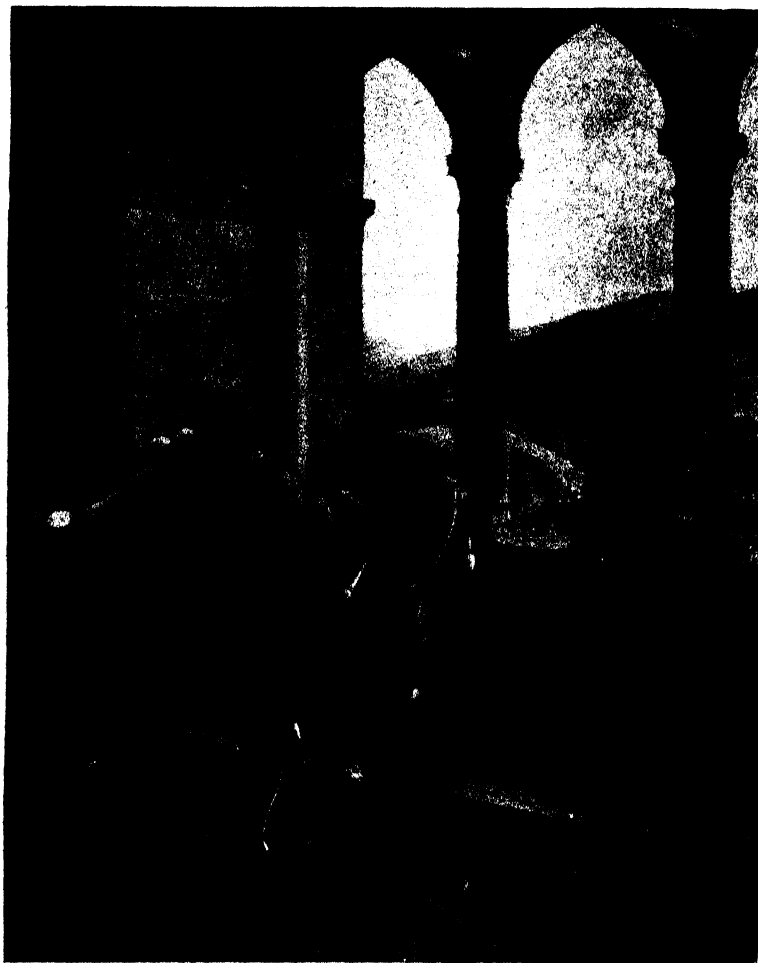
Maria De Molina was the wife of Sancho IV., called "the Brave," King of Castile from 1284 to 1295. After his death the regency fell to Maria De Molina during a period of lawlessness and violence. But she ruled with tact and great courage, and is here seen protecting the Infante Don Juan from the fury of the nobles.

the power of the Church and the Inquisition of later days in Spain. The zeal that comes of new conversion led also, at the beginning of the seventh century, to a terrible persecution of the Jews, large numbers of whom had settled and thriven in Spain.

Under Reccared's successors the country was weakened by struggles between the Crown and the nobility. The Visigothic kings were elected, but they now endeavoured to make the Crown hereditary, a proceeding naturally opposed by the nobles. The last of this line of kings, "Roderic, the last of the Goths," was elected by the turbulent nobles to the exclusion of his predecessor's son, in 710. In addition to the enemies he thus naturally acquired, Roderic apparently raised up a powerful foe in the person of one of his nobles, Count Julian, governor of Ceuta, by the seduction of his daughter. The story of the daughter is now discredited, but Count Julian seems to have treacherously aided the Moors of North Africa to obtain a foothold in Spain—for which they had many years been striving.

The people whom the Spaniards class together as "Moors" were a mixed race of Arabs, Berbers, Egyptians, Syrians, etc., Mohammedans by

Roderic was slain, or at any rate disappeared. This is one of the world's decisive battles, for it handed Spain over to the Moors, who were not dislodged till eight hundred years later.



*From the painting]*

*[By Marcortu,*

#### THE MURDER OF THE INFANTE DON JUAN.

The murder of the Infante Don Juan, Prince of Aragon, in 1358 was planned with callous brutality by Pedro the Cruel. He broke his promise to give Biscay to Don Juan, who thereupon left him in disgust. But Don Juan was soon recalled to the Court at Bilbao. As he entered the royal apartments he was struck on the head with a mace, after which his lifeless body was thrown from a window into the street.

religion, and subjects of the Caliph of Damascus, the head of the Moslem world. In the year 711 Musa, the Caliph's governor in North Africa, aided by Roderic's enemies sent his lieutenant, Tarif, with some five thousand Moors on a plundering expedition into Spain. With a much superior force Roderic met them near the river Guadalete. Here was fought a terrible battle which, according to the old chroniclers, lasted for several days. For a long time the issue remained doubtful, but in the end the Christians were utterly routed, and

#### THE MEDIEVAL PERIOD

##### FROM THE MOORISH CONQUEST TO THE FORMATION OF A UNITED SPAIN

MUSA followed up his successful lieutenant, and the victorious Moors swept over the country, capturing the towns and subjecting the inhabitants. In three or four years they had reached the Pyrenees. They even passed beyond, leaving, however, a number of Christian refugees unsubdued in the northern



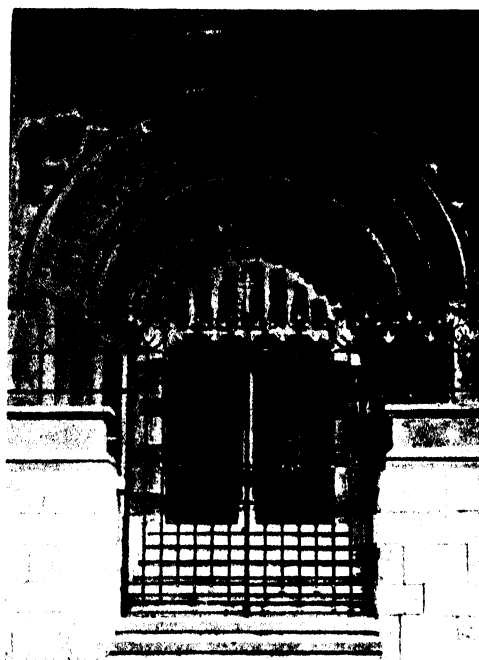
*From the painting*

#### COLUMBUS AT THE COUNCIL OF SALAMANCA.

After Columbus had convinced himself that a great land lay to the west of the Atlantic Ocean, his next step was to secure a patron to finance the expedition. After innumerable difficulties, in 1487 he obtained an audience of Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand, who referred his schemes to a conference of astronomers, who were mainly ecclesiastics. Columbus himself was the guest of the Dominicans, who thought that his ideas savoured of heresy, and after an inquiry lasting three years the conference pronounced his schemes impracticable.

*[By Professor Barabino.]*

mountain fastnesses. Their advance was not checked till another great battle had been fought at Tours (732), after which they gradually retired behind the Pyrenees into Spain. Here they might perhaps have established themselves permanently if they had but subdued the Christians in the northern mountains. Their neglect of these was a small mistake which cost them the country; and the history of the Spaniards for the next eight hundred years is the story of the development of these Christian refugees into a nation powerful enough to drive the last of the Moorish kings from Spain in 1492. With the Moors themselves



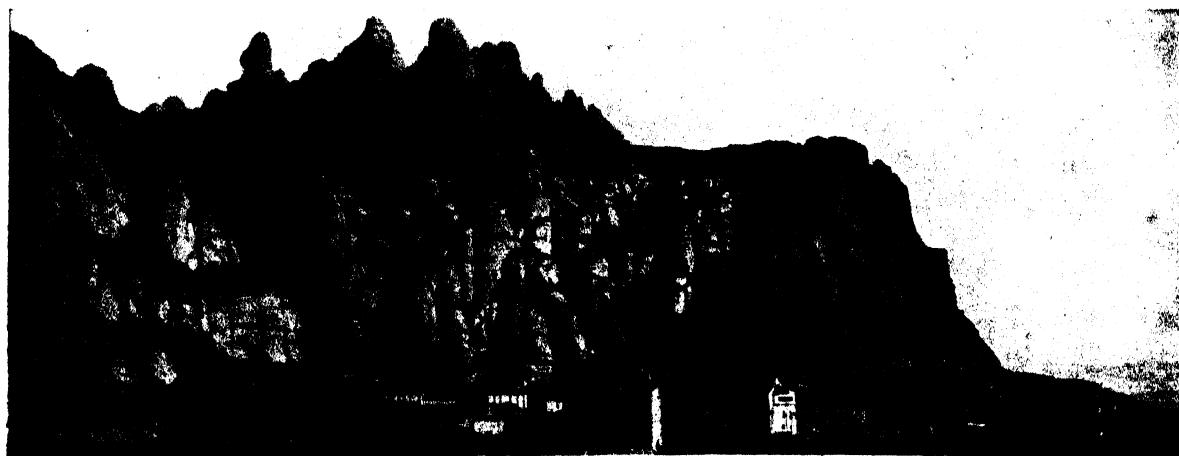
The principal entrance to the public part of the Royal Monastery Church of San Salvador de Leire, Navarra.

we are not immediately concerned here, but the main outlines of their history in Spain must be briefly given, in order that the Spanish position may be understood.

The Moors who had thus rapidly conquered Spain were, as we have seen, a mixed race, and not unnaturally, therefore, they soon weakened their position in Spain by quarrelling among themselves; and as the natives did not rise and expel them during this period of weakness their rule must at least have been tolerable to their new subjects. The tottering Moorish power was revived by Abdurrahman, a survivor of the reigning Omayyad family

from the general massacre of the reigning Omayyad family in Damascus, who sought refuge in Spain and, overcoming rival chiefs, founded an emirate which threw off all allegiance to the Caliph of Damascus and later became an independent Caliphate of Cordova. It was to assist the Emir of Saragossa against this Abdurrahman that Charlemagne led an army into Spain, and it was on the return of this expedition that Charlemagne's rearguard, under the famous Roland, was surprised by the Basques in the Pyrenees at Roncevaux and entirely cut to pieces (778).

The Caliphate of Cordova dominated Moorish Spain, but under Abdurrahman's successors it was a prey to rival factions, which gave opportunity for a rising of the city of Toledo, memorable for the manner of its suppression. Pretending good will to the citizens, the reigning Caliph invited the chief

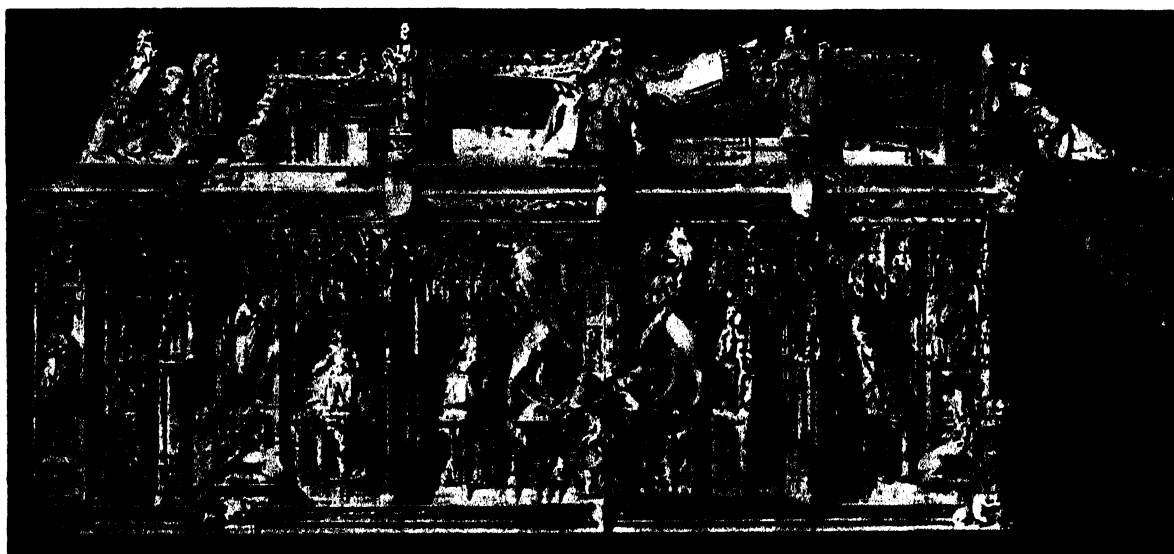


THE MONASTERY OF MONTSERRAT.

The monastery of Montserrat is associated with a very remarkable story. Legend relates that a certain image of the Virgin, carved by St. Luke, was brought to Spain by St. Peter. This image was hidden near Montserrat during the Moorish troubles, and when a certain bishop came to remove it later on it was carried to a spot on the mountain where it refused to go farther. The meaning of the miracle was recognized, a chapel was raised, and later a Benedictine monastery was built round the chapel.

among them to a banquet ; but as they entered the door, the individual guests were hurried away and massacred, over seven hundred being said to have perished in this way.

The rival factions had almost brought disaster to the Moorish rule again when it was saved by Abdurrahman III. (912-961), whose powerful rule restored order in the country. Shortly after this the Caliphate passed into the hands of another strong man, who had begun life as a scribe. Known to the Christians as Almanzor, he earned a terrible reputation among them for the raids he made into their territory at the end of the tenth century. During the century following Almanzor's death the Caliphate collapsed and was replaced by a number of independent emirates, while in the general weakness that ensued the Christians captured the important stronghold of Toledo. This blow caused the Moors to summon to their assistance the Almoravides, a mixed race of Berber and negro blood from North Africa. As was only to be expected, after these had helped to inflict severe defeats on the Christians, they seized the Moorish districts for themselves. But their rule soon fell to pieces, and they were replaced by the Almohades, a fanatical race who first overran North Africa and then, in the middle of the twelfth century, made themselves masters of southern Spain. Their rule, too, soon decayed, while the Moorish power



TOMB IN THE MONASTERY OF MIRAFLORES.

The monastery of Miraflores, near Burgos, dates from the fifteenth century, having been founded by King John II. of Castile in 1441. It belongs to the Carthusian Order, and contains the tombs of King John himself, his wife Isabella (the one depicted here), and their son.

in Spain was utterly broken by an overwhelming Christian victory in 1212. After this, all Spain fell into the hands of the Christians except the small kingdom of Granada, which survived till nearly the close of the fifteenth century.

In spite of all their internal quarrels and their wars with the Christians, the Moors had been able to develop the agriculture of the country, while under the Caliphate the city of Cordova became famous throughout Europe as a home of the arts and sciences long before the Christians took any interest in culture and intellectual pursuits. Its mosque still stands (now part of the Cathedral), a noble tribute to their civilization ; the magic of the Alhambra, the Moorish palace at Granada, still attracts visitors from all over the world ; while there are notable architectural monuments in Seville, Toledo, and other towns the Moors once occupied.

Having thus briefly outlined the main currents of Moorish history in Spain, we can now turn to the Christian refugees, who, at the time of the Moorish conquest, maintained their independence in the northern mountains, and whose descendants were destined, after a struggle lasting eight hundred years, utterly to reverse the positions of the two races. As the Christians increased in numbers they extended their domain by conquests from the neighbouring Moors when the latter were weak, often to lose the conquered territory again, wholly or in part, when the Moors recovered their strength, but always



gradually progressing at the expense of their rivals. Largely owing to the nature of the country, they split up as they expanded into various small kingdoms, and thus their history is a complicated tangle of many threads. It will make matters clearer if, as with the Moors, we first sketch briefly the main outlines of their development, and treat this as a background on which to overlay such detail as space permits.

The early history of the small kingdoms we have spoken of is involved in legend and obscurity, from which, before the middle of the tenth century, the following emerge clearly: (1) The kingdom of Leon, with the city which still bears that name as its capital, among the Cantabrian mountains. (2) The kingdom of Castile, to the east of Leon, of which it was a dependent county till the year 932, when it broke away and became independent. (3) The kingdom of Galicia, to the west of Leon, corresponding



*From the painting]*

*[By R. Balaca.*

#### COLUMBUS TAKING LEAVE OF THE PRIOR OF LA RABIDA.

After Columbus's hopes had been shattered by the Conference of Salamanca he determined to go to France. While on his way thither he called at the monastery of La Rabida to ask for food. The prior was sympathetic, and becoming interested in his schemes made him stay at the monastery and wrote in his behalf to the Queen, whose confessor he had been. Thenceforth the two men remained steadfast friends.

to the modern province of that name. (4) The kingdom of Navarre, at the western end of the Pyrenees. (5) The county of Barcelona, at the eastern end of the same chain. The last corresponds to the modern Catalonia, and was conquered from the Moors by the Franks, who made it a dependent county; but it became independent in the middle of the ninth century. Its Frankish origin accounts for the fact that in Catalonia to this day a different language is spoken from that used in the rest of Spain.

In the eleventh century several changes took place. To the five kingdoms already enumerated we have to add (6) the kingdom of Aragon, an offshoot of Navarre. But to counterbalance this, the kingdoms of Navarre, Castile, Leon and Galicia were from time to time united by inheritance or conquest. They were, however, just as often separated again, for a king who acquired more than one kingdom would divide his possessions on his death among his sons. It was this fatal practice, so often indulged in during this and the next century, which delayed so long the union of the Christian kingdoms in Spain, and the reconquest of the country from the Moors.



Painted by F. Pradilla.

#### THE SURRENDER OF GRANADA.

By the last decade of the fifteenth century Granada alone remained of all the great Moorish conquests in Spain. Ferdinand of Aragon spent ten years over the reconquest of this kingdom and largely owed his ultimate success to the intrigues and dissensions of the Moors themselves. Granada itself, the last Moorish stronghold in Spain, surrendered on the 2nd of January, 1492. Ferdinand procured the submission of the Moors to some extent by promises which he afterwards violated.

Engraved by W. A. Marshall & Co.



FERDINAND V. AND ISABELLA THE CATHOLIC.

The marriage of Ferdinand V. of Aragon and Isabella of Castile in 1469 was an event of the highest importance. Isabella succeeded to the throne of Castile in 1474, and she and her husband were proclaimed joint sovereigns. The union of these two powerful kingdoms formed the nucleus from which the modern kingdom of Spain has sprung.

Other changes, made in the twelfth century, tend to simplify the narrative of events. Through a royal marriage Barcelona became merged with Aragon during the second quarter of this century, while at the end of the century Navarre, after having been temporarily absorbed by its daughter-kingdom of Aragon, passed into the hands of French princes, and does not greatly concern Spain till over two hundred years later. Towards the middle of the twelfth century Portugal was formed as an offshoot of Leon and Galicia, and passed likewise into the hands of a French prince. But we are not concerned here with the Portuguese, except where they come into contact with the Spaniards. It should be mentioned, however, that in Portugal, in the west, a language was formed differing as much from that of the other kingdoms as the Catalanian did in the east.

With the thirteenth century a great advance was made towards political unity, and the story becomes much simplified. At the beginning of the second quarter of this century Ferdinand III. of Castile inherited the crown of Leon, which had absorbed Galicia, and the whole of the west of Spain united to form the single kingdom of Castile. From this time onwards, therefore, we deal only with two main Christian states: Castile in the west, having absorbed Leon and Galicia, and Aragon in the east, having absorbed Barcelona. These continue separate down to the latter part of the fifteenth century, when a royal marriage leads to their union, shortly after which the last Moorish kingdom in Spain is reduced.

We must now supplement this brief sketch of the Christian kingdoms by a more detailed relation. As we have seen, most of the inhabitants of Spain accepted the Moorish rule after the conquest; but a few Christians in the north maintained an independent existence, neglected for a time by the Moors.



*Painted specially for this work*

*by J. H. Valda*

#### THE LAST COUNCIL OF BOABDIL AT THE ALHAMBRA, 1492.

Abu Abdullah (Boabdil) known as "the Unfortunate," was the last Moorish King of Granada, and his weak and inconstant disposition hastened the end of the Moorish dominion in Spain. In 1483 his kingdom became tributary to that of Castile and Aragon, and in 1491 Ferdinand, King of Castile, besieged Granada. After surrendering the city, Abu Abdullah was permitted to go and live on his estate in Andalusia, but he ultimately crossed over to Africa.



After some years, however, those who had settled in the mountains of the Asturias began to give trouble, and a punitive expedition was sent against them in 718. The Moors were lured by the Christian leader, Pelayo, into the narrow defile of Covadonga, where they were overwhelmed by a shower of rocks from the mountain sides and then massacred, hundreds of thousands being slain by a few hundred Christians, according to the old chroniclers. Details of the fight are fabulous, but they have their foundation in fact, and Covadonga is sacred to all Spaniards as the turning-point in the struggle between Christians and Moors. Pelayo became the first king of the small state of the Asturias, with its capital at the still-existing village of Cangas de Onis.

After Covadonga, the Christians increased in numbers, and towards the middle of the eighth century Alphonso, the first king to bear that favourite name, added Galicia to his small domain. This was during the period of Moorish weakness which preceded the revival under Abdurrahman, who made Cordova the Moorish capital in 755. There is nothing further to record during this century except the expedition of Charlemagne into Spain, of which we have already spoken.

At the very beginning of the ninth century an advance was made by the Christians on the eastern side, where the Franks captured Barcelona from the Moors, while during the course of the century the kingdom of the Asturias extended its conquests south of the mountains as far as the river Douro. As, in the meantime, the Moors had been driven out of Navarre at the western end of the Pyrenees, practically all the north of Spain had already been won back by the Christians at the beginning of the tenth century.

The brunt of the reconquest had been borne by the western state of the Asturias, and much of it had been accomplished under Alphonso III., whose reign fills the latter part of the ninth century. This reign ended with internal quarrels which forced the king to divide his kingdom among his sons.



*From the painting]*

*[By R. Balazs.*

**COLUMBUS RECEIVED IN AUDIENCE BY FERDINAND AND ISABELLA ON HIS RETURN FROM AMERICA.**

On Friday, the 15th of March, 1493, Columbus reached Spain after discovering America. He immediately proceeded to Barcelona, where he was received in triumph. Ferdinand and Isabella granted him a special audience, at which he related all his exploits and adventures and presented all the new and strange objects, animate and inanimate, he had brought from the New World.

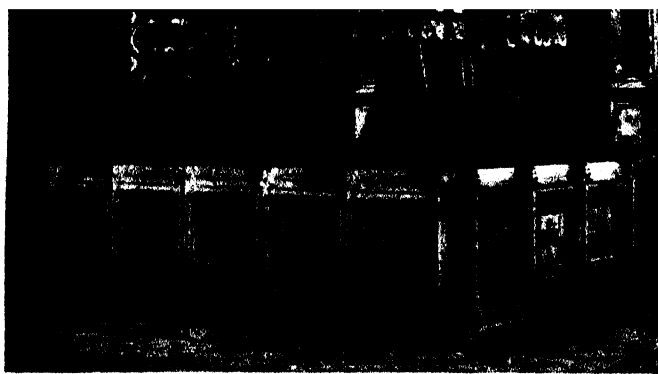
And so began the practice which disunited the Christians so frequently during the next three centuries, and postponed the final subjugation of the Moors. It is clear that the early stages of the reconquest were less the result of a settled plan to drive the Moors from Spain than of casual extensions of boundary.

At the beginning of the tenth century the Christians in the west had become strong enough to move their capital from the north side of the mountains to Leon, which gave its name to the extended kingdom, on the unprotected south side. The first half of this century is taken up with wars against the Moors, a decisive Christian defeat at Val de Junquera in 921 being counterbalanced by an equally decisive victory at Simancas.

Before the middle of the century Castile broke away from Leon, and for a long time the quarrels between the two states further hindered the work of reconquest. In addition, the Normans to the north were now at the height of their power, and the Moorish empire to the south had been reorganized by Abdurrahman III. The Normans overran and occupied Galicia for two years before they were driven out. But it was at the hands of the Moors that the Spaniards suffered most. In the midst of their other troubles, Almanzor, the greatest Moorish leader since the original invasion, rose so meteorically to power in Cordova.

According to some, a "divine splendour," or, according to others, the presence of a solitary monk who remained praying there, had on Almanzor. But Almanzor's raids had no permanent effect, for the Caliphate of Cordova fell to pieces shortly after his death. The Christians soon recovered their lost ground, and in the next reign Leon was refounded.

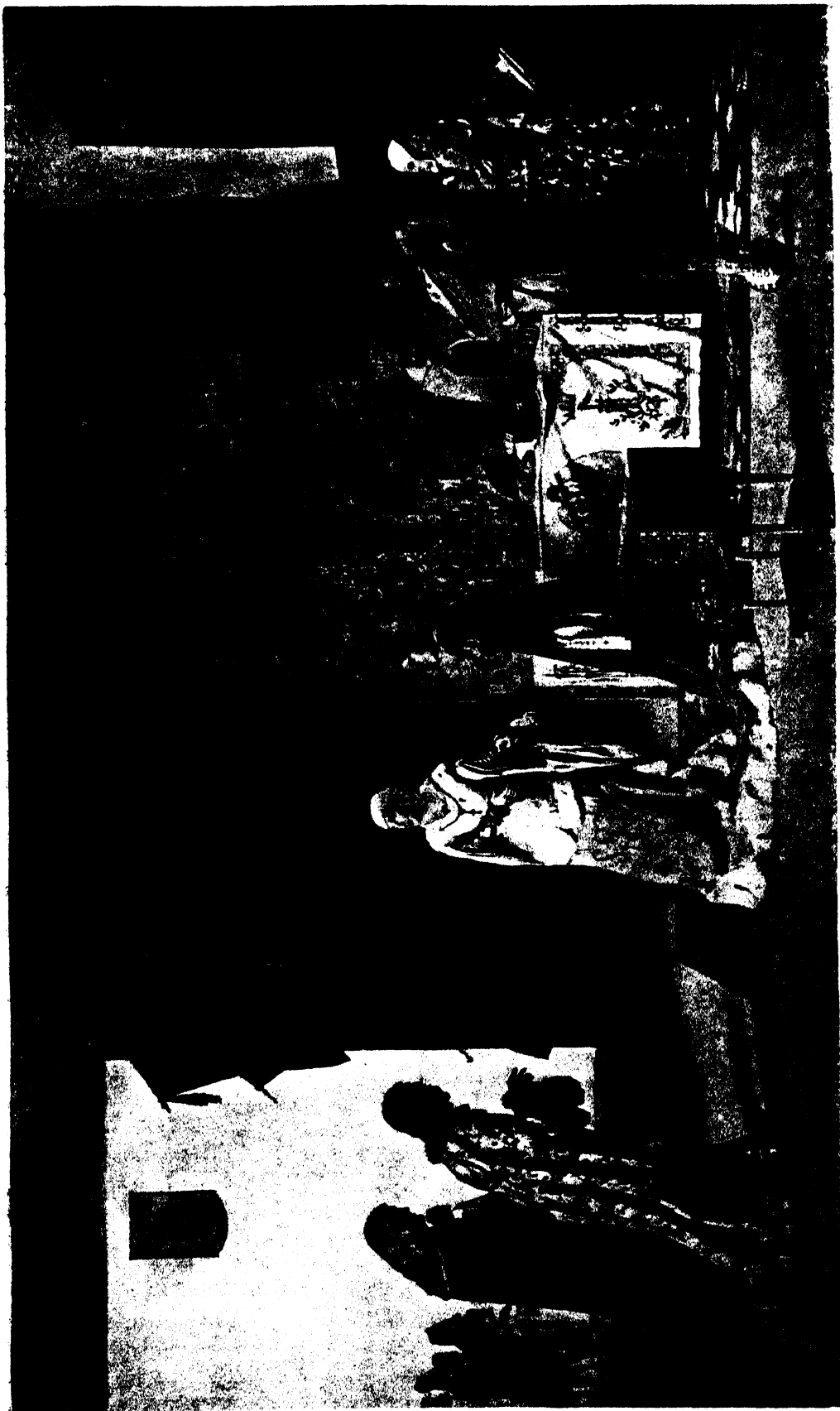
By the beginning of the eleventh century, royal marriages had prepared the way for a union of the crowns of Castile and Leon. The Castilian king, Ferdinand I., became king of Leon by right of his wife after the defeat and death of the reigning king of Leon in 1037. The Christian states now are Barcelona in the east, Navarre in the centre, and the united Castile and Leon in the west, this last reaching far south. Ferdinand had to contend with the Navarrese, over whom he won a famous



TOMB OF COLUMBUS IN SEVILLE CATHEDRAL.

Columbus was buried at Valladolid in 1506. In 1513 his remains were removed to Seville, in 1536 to San Domingo, and in 1796 to Havana: though some assert that on the second occasion his son's remains were removed instead of the father's by mistake.

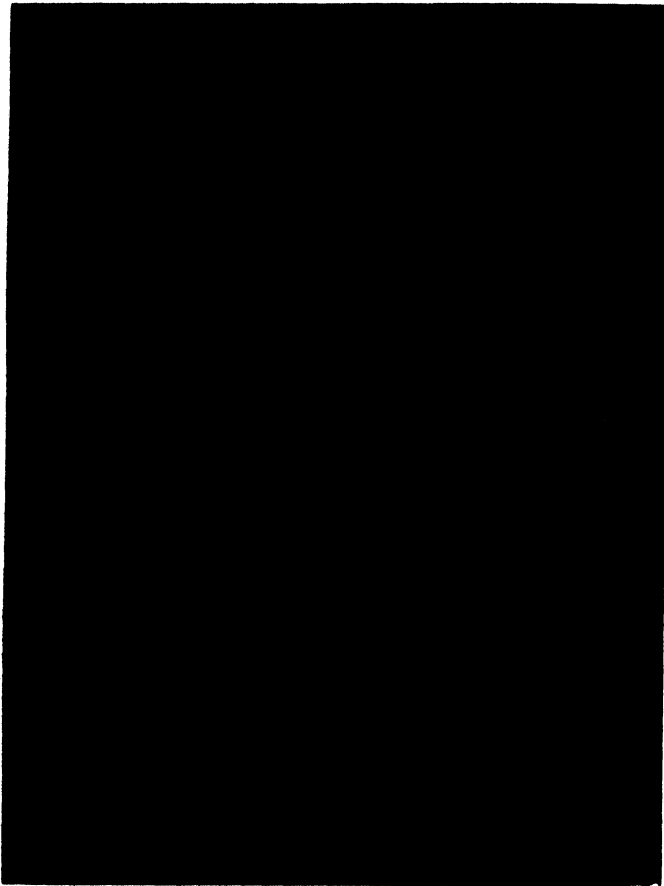
Proclaiming a holy war, he ravaged the Christian territories right and left, sacking the capital Leon itself in 996. He touched the Christians even nearer by penetrating right into Galicia and despoiling Santiago de Compostela; for here was the shrine of the Apostle St. James, the patron saint of Spain. This was one of the most sacred spots in the world throughout the Middle Ages, the pilgrims who flocked there being so numerous that "the road to Santiago" became another name for "the Milky Way." Almanzor razed the church there and carried away the bells to Cordova, while the sacred shrine itself was only spared by the effect which, ac-



#### ISABELLA PLEDGING HER JEWELS FOR THE EXPEDITION OF COLUMBUS.

Although Queen Isabella deliberated and hesitated for seven years before she made up her mind to support the project of Columbus, she lost no time in carrying her resolution into effect. Lack of money was by no means the only or main difficulty, for men could not be found to face the perils of the unknown. Even the promise of freedom to criminals in the prisons was found to be an insufficient inducement, and only the indomitable perseverance of Columbus at length triumphed over all obstacles.





From the painting]

IGNATIUS LOYOLA.

[By Titian.

Ignatius Loyola, founder of the Jesuit Order, was born in 1491. His youth and early manhood were devoted to the profession of arms, and it was while recovering from a severe wound that his thoughts were turned into religious channels by reading the "Lives of the Saints." He travelled far as a pilgrim, and it was in Paris that he gathered round him a pious brotherhood, the "Followers of Jesus," which was destined to develop into the Jesuit Order.

before the Castilians would accept him as their king he was obliged to swear on the gospels in the still-existing Church of Santa Gadea in Burgos that he had no share in his brother's death. This oath, famous as the "oath of Santa Gadea," was administered by Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar, whose prowess against the Moors won him the title of "the Cid," and who through the medium of the earliest and greatest Spanish epic has become the national hero of Spain. Rodrigo Diaz had been in the service of the late king Sancho, and had assisted at the siege of Zamora, but as the result of a quarrel with the new king he went into exile. He then became a soldier of fortune, fighting with his retainers for or against Moor or Christian, and ended by capturing from the Moors in 1094 the rich city of Valencia, ever afterwards known as Valencia of the Cid. Here he held out against the Almoravides, who at this time made themselves masters of Moorish Spain. After his death in 1099 his widow held Valencia for two years; but she was then compelled to retire northwards after burning the city. The Cid's embalmed body, mounted on horseback, sword in hand as though in life, threw terror into the Moors and ensured a safe passage.

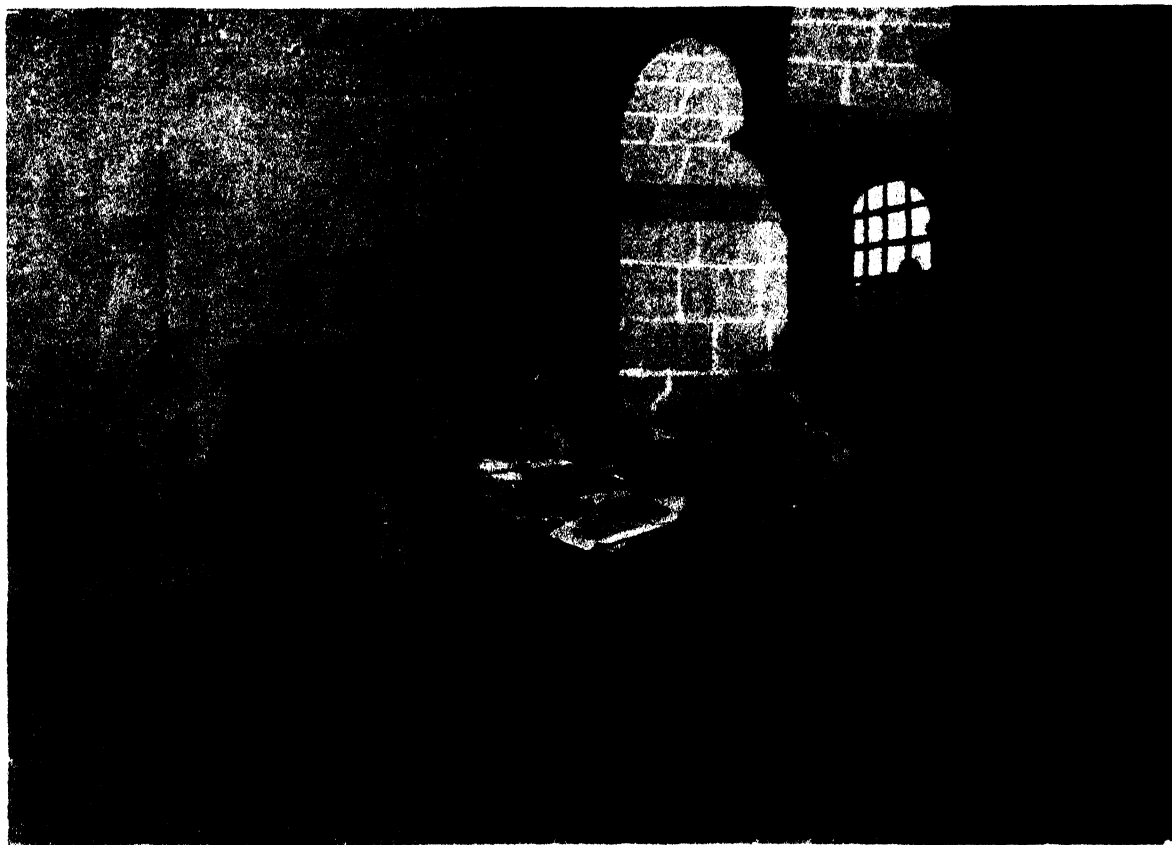
The coming of the Almoravides into Spain was due to Alphonso's capture of Toledo, where he had once taken refuge from his brother. Toledo was at this time the principal Moorish bulwark against Castile, and its capture was a signal Christian triumph, which spread consternation among the Moors. They therefore called in the Almoravides from North Africa to their help, and a great battle was fought between them and Alphonso, who was aided by the Navarrese, at Zalaca, near Badajoz. The Christians

victory at Atapuerca (1054), where the king of Navarre was killed. But after this he turned his attention to the Moors, recovering much of what is now Portugal, and advancing his boundary almost to the river Tagus. On his death, however, in 1065, he showed that he had little perception of the strength that comes of unity, for he undid much of his good work by dividing his realm among his children, bequeathing Castile to Sancho, the eldest, Leon to Alphonso, Galicia to Garcia, and the towns of Toro and Zamora to his daughters Elvira and Urraca respectively.

This arrangement inevitably led to wars between the brothers. Sancho soon overcame Alphonso and Garcia, the former taking refuge with the Moorish king of Toledo. He then proceeded to attack his sisters. Elvira abandoned Toro; but Urraca defended Zamora so obstinately that "Zamora was not taken in an hour" has become a national proverb. During the siege, Sancho was treacherously slain, while absolutely defenceless, by one Bellido Dolfos, famous ever after in Spanish romances as the typical traitor. On Sancho's death his brother Alphonso, the ex-king of Leon, was recalled from Toledo, and made king of Leon and Castile, to which he added Galicia, imprisoning his brother Garcia for life. According to the story, which like all these picturesque stories is now doubted,

were badly beaten, and Alphonso was wounded and escaped with difficulty. An even greater disaster happened at the battle of Uclés in 1108, for there Alphonso's son Sancho and the flower of the Christian knights perished. The result was that when Alphonso died, the crown of Castile went to his daughter Urraca, who was married to Alphonso I. of Aragon—then becoming a prominent state—in order to unite and strengthen the Christians against the Almoravides. But the marriage failed in its purpose. Urraca and her husband quarrelled, and their respective subjects siding with them, war between Castile and Aragon ensued. In the end the royal pair were divorced and the two kingdoms separated again. Alphonso I. of Aragon, thus left to himself, took Saragossa from the Moors, and extended his boundaries in a series of campaigns which gained him the epithet of "the Battler."

Meantime, in 1126, Urraca of Castile died and was succeeded by Alphonso VII., her son by a former husband. With the power of the Almoravides declining in Spain, this king extended his boundaries to the Sierra Morena; but on his death he left Castile and Leon to his sons Sancho and Ferdinand respectively. The great western kingdom was thus split up once more; and yet it was during the period of separation that the Moorish power received its deadliest blow. Sancho I. of Castile died after reigning one year, leaving the crown to his infant son Alphonso VIII. After a minority troubled by quarrels between powerful families over his guardianship, Alphonso married Eleanor, daughter of Henry II. of England, and assumed the crown at the age of fourteen in 1170. His long reign, which was full of quarrels with his fellow Christian kings in Spain, is memorable for a great Moorish victory and a still greater Moorish defeat. By this time, the Almohades had supplanted the Almoravides in Moorish Spain, and the Castilians under Alphonso rashly went to meet their advancing forces without waiting for assistance. The result was a crushing defeat for the Christians at Alarcos (1195) and the



*From the painting]*

## MEN OF THE INQUISITION.

*[By J. P. Laurens.*

The Inquisition, a name around which the most sinister associations have gathered, was originally a department of the government devoted to supervising ecclesiastical affairs and especially dealing with converts and heretics. It was established in Castile in 1480, and only later evolved the drastic methods which have earned for it an unenviable notoriety.

recovery by the Moors of lost territory as far as the Tagus. The Almohades then gathered together an enormous army, which filled Christendom generally with such consternation that the Pope proclaimed a crusade against the Unbelievers in Spain. Alphonso and the kings of Aragon and Navarre combined their forces and met the Moorish host at Las Navas de Tolosa among the Sierra Morena in 1212. The Moors were superior in numbers, and the battle which ensued at one time seemed lost for the Christians; but the coolness of the fighting Archbishop of Toledo eventually carried the day, and the Moors were utterly routed, the slain, according to the old chroniclers, numbering hundreds of thousands. The power of the Almohades was utterly broken, and Las Navas de Tolosa marks the end of a united Moorish empire in Spain. Hereafter the Christians had only to contend against a number of small kingdoms.

While the Moorish power was thus breaking up, the Christians were making for definite union. The



*From the painting]*

#### INCIDENT IN THE CONQUEST OF ORAN.

*[By F. Jover.*

As if not content with subduing the Moors in Spain, in 1509 Ferdinand V. crossed the straits and carried the war into their native country in Africa. An expedition was organized on a large scale, and Oran, Tripoli and a large part of the coast were quickly reduced.

daughter of Alphonso VIII. of Castile married Alphonso IX. of Leon, and under their son Ferdinand III. Castile and Leon were permanently united to form the new and enlarged kingdom of Castile. Some time previously a similar marriage had brought the Counts of Barcelona to the throne of Aragon, so that early in the thirteenth century Christian Spain consisted practically of the two kingdoms of Castile and Aragon. Contemporary with Ferdinand III. of Castile was James I. of Aragon, called "the Conqueror." He first conquered the Balearic Islands, hitherto a stronghold for Moslem pirates, with the help of his Catalan sailors. Next he permanently won back Valencia from the Moors in 1238, starving it into surrender in spite of the attempts to provision it made by the Moorish fleet. Then he conquered Murcia, and although he handed this over to Castile, when he died in 1276 he left Aragon equal in importance with Castile.

Ferdinand III. of Castile, free from quarrels with Christian princes, also extended his dominions at the expense of the Moors. In 1235 he took Cordova, for nearly five centuries the Moorish capital, which



*From the painting*

### QUEEN JOANNA WITH THE BODY OF PHILIP I.

Philip I. of Spain, known as "the Handsome," was the son of Maximilian of Austria and Mary of Burgundy. In 1496 he married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, and in her right became King of Castile in 1504. Meanwhile Joanna had lost her reason, and is known to history as "the Mad." Their children, however, showed no trace of their mother's malady, one being the Emperor Charles V., another the Emperor Ferdinand I., while all the daughters married into reigning houses of Europe.

*[By F. Pradilla.]*



*From the painting]*

*[By M. Ramirez.*

#### VICTORY OF CORTEZ OVER THE AZTECS AT OTUMBA.

In 1518 Hernando Cortez was sent by the Governor of Cuba to conquer Mexico, which had just been discovered. The expedition was wholly successful, and Cortez occupied Mexico, the ancient city of the Aztecs, and virtually made a captive of their Emperor, Montezuma. Two years later the Mexicans revolted, and after a minor success were utterly routed by the Spaniards at Otumba, the victory being mainly due to the military skill of Cortez himself.

position now fell to Granada. Later, in alliance with the Moorish king of Granada, he laid **siege** to Seville, at that time a wealthy port. By building a navy in the north—the first Castilian **navy** we hear of—he overcame the Moorish fleet on the Guadalquivir, and after a year's blockade the city **surrendered** in 1248. Ferdinand died in 1252 and was succeeded by his son Alphonso X., called "the Wise," **famous** as a student and writer, a patron of letters and the sciences, and a legislative reformer. His **tastes** led practically to a discontinuance of the campaign against the Moors. Instead he made an unsuccessful claim to the crown of Germany, while the latter part of his reign was full of wars over the succession, during which the power of the nobles, already great, was increased. Alphonso's eldest son, Ferdinand, had died fighting against the Moors, and when Alphonso himself died, Ferdinand's children were passed over in favour of the second son Sancho. In spite of the inevitable internal quarrels, Sancho found time to fight the Moors, who were aided by his rebellious brother John. Having captured Tarifa, then an important Moorish stronghold near Gibraltar, Sancho placed in charge Alonso de Guzman, of whom the following story is told. Tarifa was soon besieged by the Moors, with whom was the king's brother John, and obstinately defended by Alonso de Guzman; whereupon the besiegers brought Guzman's eldest son, a boy of nine, who had been entrusted to Prince John as a page, before the walls, threatening to kill him before his father's eyes if the place were not surrendered. The father, however, threw his own **dagger** from the ramparts, bidding them kill the boy with that, for "he would **rather** have honour without a son than a son without honour." The boy was forthwith murdered by the dastardly John; but Alonso de Guzman, for his loyalty, earned the title of "the Good." He himself was killed at the capture of Gibraltar in the reign of the next king, Ferdinand IV., who was a minor when his father died. The inevitable civil wars filled the reign of this king, who from an unauthenticated story as to his death became known as "the Summoned." He is said to have caused two brothers to

be executed without a trial, and they, protesting their innocence, summoned him to appear before the Supreme Tribunal within thirty days. Before that time had elapsed he was found dead in his bed. He left a son who was also a minor, and the internal wars continued, till in 1325 the son was recognized by all parties as Alphonso XI. After some years his kingdom had settled down sufficiently for him to continue the campaign against the Moors, who, reinforced from Africa, had recaptured Gibraltar and were besieging Tarifa. Marching to the relief of Tarifa with help from Aragon and Portugal, Alphonso met the Moors on the banks of the river Salado, where a bloody battle was fought which destroyed all hopes of a Moorish revival ; more especially as Alphonso followed up his victory by the capture, after a twenty months' siege, of Algeciras, which had always served as a landing-place for the Moors coming from Africa. Alphonso's last enterprise was the siege of Gibraltar, but he died in 1350 before he could capture it.

While these things were going on in Castile, there is one important incident to chronicle in the neighbouring kingdom of Aragon. The son of King James " the Conqueror " was Peter III., who married the heiress of Manfred, king of Sicily. This gave him some claim to the throne of that country, and when the people of Sicily arose against their French overlords and the great massacre known as the Sicilian Vespers took place (1283), Peter seized the opportunity to conquer Sicily for himself. In this way Aragon became involved in Italian affairs—a fertile source of trouble in later years both for Spain and for Europe.

In Castile Alphonso XI. was succeeded in 1350 by his son Peter I., who was only fifteen when he came to the throne. He at once embarked on the career which won him the name of Peter the Cruel. At the instigation of his mother, his father's mistress, Eleanor de Guzman, was strangled in prison ; but her sons escaped—one of them, Henry of Trastamara, to carry on a life-long war with his half-brother, and in the end to succeed him. The list of murders attributed to Peter, some committed in his own presence, is too long to be detailed here ; it includes those of his own wife Blanche, niece of the French King ; of a half-brother, a cousin and an aunt ; of the Archbishop of Santiago and the Moorish King of Granada, this last for the sake of his jewels and money while he was Peter's guest.

Peter was soon at war with the Aragonese, on whose side his half-brother, Henry of Trastamara, and some of his own nobles fought. They were also joined by a French force under the famous leader, Bertrand du Guesclin. Peter was driven out of Spain, and sought and obtained the



*From the painting*

CHARLES V. AND PIZARRO.

[By Angel Lizcano.]

In the course of travels and adventures in the newly-discovered Central America, Francisco Pizarro heard rumours of the existence of a great and ancient empire in Peru. In 1528 he set sail for Spain to arouse the interest and secure the assistance of Charles V. himself. After certain delays the Queen made him governor of the province of "New Castile," and he was empowered to conquer and subdue for Spain the territories he should discover.

help of the Black Prince, who was then governor of Aquitaine, a small part of the price for his assistance being the historic ruby which Peter had stolen from the murdered Moorish King of Granada, and which in this way now comes to adorn the English crown. With an English army of twenty or thirty thousand men, the Black Prince marched over the Pyrenees into Spain and met the combined French, Castilian and Aragonese forces, numbering about eighty thousand, near Nájera. Here in 1367 the Black Prince gained one of his most notable victories, the enemy's losses almost equalling in number the whole English army.

Henry of Trastamara fled to France, but Bertrand du Guesclin and many Spanish nobles were taken prisoners. Peter was restored to the throne, but his barbarous conduct disgusted the Black Prince, who withdrew to Aquitaine. Thereupon, Henry of Trastamara returned with new French forces, and



*From the painting]*

#### EXECUTION OF PADILLA AND HIS ASSOCIATES.

*[By A. Gilbert.*

Charles V., who was a Netherlander, had little sympathy with the ancient rights of Castile. In 1519 occurred the revolt of the cities, known as the "Comuneros." A league was formed with Juan Lopez de Padilla at its head, and the mad Joanna, Charles's mother, was seized to be a figurehead of the movement. At Villalar the league was defeated by the nobles. Padilla was captured and executed next day.

Peter was defeated and shut up in the castle of Montiel. From here he was lured into a tent and murdered by his half-brother, who succeeded him as Henry II. The only notable feature of Henry's reign was his struggle with the Duke of Lancaster, John of Gaunt, who claimed the throne of Castile through his wife Constance, daughter of Peter the Cruel. Henry was succeeded by his son John I., whose attempts to subjugate Portugal ended in the disastrous defeat of the Castilians at Aljubarrota (1385), which gave Portugal independence for two centuries. The next king, Henry III., died young, leaving as his successor an infant son, John II., during whose minority the important stronghold of Antequera was won from the Moors. When he came of age John, a monarch of literary tastes, left the government in the hands of his favourite Alvaro de Luna, who strengthened the royal power, and incidentally his own, at the expense of the nobility, and who lived on much the same magnificent scale as Wolsey did later in England. Alvaro de Luna survived many attempts by the jealous nobles to overthrow him, but in the end he fell a victim to the king's second wife, his bitter opponent. After an unfair



*From the painting*

#### CHARLES V. ENTERING A MONASTERY AT ST. YUSTE.

*[By J. Agnew.]*

There are few more dramatic scenes in history than that depicted here. As a boy Charles V. succeeded to the ancient possessions of Burgundy. As a youth he succeeded to the Spanish kingdom, and in 1519 he became Emperor. Thus he became ruler of the greater part of Europe and the most powerful potentate of his day. Yet he seems to have grown tired of his position, with its world-wide responsibilities, and in 1556 he abdicated in favour of his son, Philip II., and retired from the world to the monastery of St. Yuste, where he died shortly afterwards.



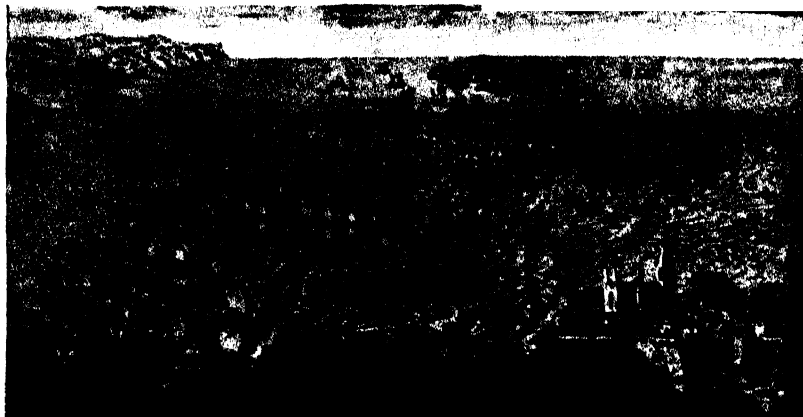


THE ARMADA.

The great Armada of 1588 was a military and naval expedition directed towards crushing the English fleet and escorting the Spanish army of the Duke of Parma, which was waiting in Flanders to cross the Channel and invade England.

hence known as La Beltraneja. Joanna's supposed illegitimacy gave rise to a struggle between the king and the nobles, many of whom refused to recognize her as heiress to the throne. The nobles went to the extreme length of assembling in Avila and publicly deposing Henry, whose effigy was stripped of the royal insignia and overthrown, while his brother Alphonso was proclaimed in his stead. Shortly afterwards, however, Alphonso died suddenly—perhaps by poison; and then the nobles proposed the king's sister, Isabella, as heiress to the throne of Castile, to which Henry was forced to agree. The choice turned out a most fortunate one for Spain, as in 1469 Isabella married Ferdinand, son of the king of Aragon. Thus when Henry died in 1474, Isabella was left queen of Castile, with a husband who was heir to the throne of the other great Christian kingdom in the peninsula. A united Spain, as we now know it, was already within sight.

The internal affairs of Aragon, during the two centuries following the last mention of that kingdom, offer little worth noting; but its external expansion must be briefly described. The islands of Corsica and Sardinia were acquired early in the fourteenth century, the latter in return for a temporary renunciation of Aragonese claims on Sicily. But the revival of claims to Sicily and the maintenance of authority over the turbulent inhabitants of Sardinia involved Aragon in costly expeditions which, along with internal struggles, helped to exhaust the kingdom. During the first half of the fifteenth century, King



THE ARMADA.

As the great Spanish fleet passed up the Channel it was incessantly harassed by the English ships, which, being smaller and faster than their antagonists, slipped under their guns, discharged broadside after broadside and made off. Many Spanish ships were lost, and when the survivors reached Calais they were driven out by the English fireships.

trial on a trumped-up charge he was condemned to death, and being deserted by the king, was publicly executed with great ceremony in Valladolid. King John II. only survived for a year the servant he had betrayed. He died in 1454, leaving three children, Henry, who succeeded him as Henry IV., Alphonso and Isabella. Henry's reign was an ignominious one, the king being under the influence of favourites, one of whom, Beltran de la Cueva, was the reputed father of the queen's daughter, Joanna,

Alphonso V. of Aragon, after many vicissitudes, conquered Sicily and Naples, and although, on his death in 1458, he left Naples to a bastard son, the spread of Aragonese influence to the Italian peninsula was a fertile source of trouble for Spain at a later date. Alphonso left Aragon, with the Balearic Islands, Sardinia and Sicily, to his brother John, who was the father of the Ferdinand we have already mentioned as having married Isabella of Castile in 1469. Spain had therefore but to wait for the death of John

before entering on a new era of unity which marks the end of the medieval and the beginning of the modern period.

Throughout the medieval period the Christian states had been continually engaged in fighting either with one another or against the Moors, and they had found little time for intellectual pursuits. Alphonso "the Wise" of Castile; as we have seen, was a patron of letters, and literature flourished at the court of John II. of Castile; for the most part, however, the kings, like their subjects, devoted themselves to warfare, which was of the ruthless type. But especially after the visits to the peninsula of the Black Prince and Bertrand du Guesclin, the flower of English and French knighthood, the chivalrous ideals of the neighbouring countries began to permeate Spanish life.



*From the painting]*

*[By V. Borrás.*

## ANTONIO PEREZ BEING VISITED IN PRISON BY HIS FAMILY (1589).

Antonio Perez was for several years the favoured minister of Philip II., but the assassination of Escovedo, secretary of Don John of Austria, at the instigation of Perez, brought about his downfall. The crime was committed with the knowledge of Philip II., but enemies of Perez represented that it was done for his own advantage. Philip henceforth became his unrelenting enemy, and after imprisonment, during which he is said to have been tortured by the Inquisition, Perez left the country. He died at Paris in 1611.

A famous incident which took place in the time of John II. is an excellent illustration. A knight named Suero de Quiñones undertook with nine companions to contend for thirty days against all comers in a tilting match. The contest took place in 1434 at the bridge of Orbigo, near Leon, before the king and his whole court, over seven hundred courses being run, and one knight being killed and Suero de Quiñones and many other knights severely wounded before the challengers were released from their self-imposed task.

The growing power of the nobles during the Moorish wars has often been mentioned. The people, too, acquired considerable power, as kings had to consult them for the purpose of raising money—in Castile for wars against the Moors, in Aragon for foreign conquests. These meetings developed into the Cortes, or parliaments, which, however, as we shall see, soon lost all their power again when Spain was united under a single king.

## THE MODERN PERIOD

WHEN Isabella succeeded to the throne of Castile in 1474 she and her husband were crowned together, but Isabella was queen in her own right, and Ferdinand occupied a somewhat subordinate position. The first duty of the sovereigns was to secure themselves on the throne against the rival faction of "La Beltraneja," who was aided not only by a section of the nobility but also by Alphonso V. of Portugal. The confederate forces were crushed at the battle of Toro (1476), and three years later "La Beltraneja" resigned all claim to the throne of Castile and retired to a convent. That same year (1479), Ferdinand succeeded to the throne of Aragon on the death of his father John, and thus Castile and Aragon were at length united—in the persons of their sovereigns, at least, for each retained its separate institutions.

From the first, while Ferdinand attended to military matters, Isabella set about the pacification and organization of her kingdom, and two famous institutions are due to her efforts. In 1476 she organized the *Santa Hermandad*, or Holy Brotherhood, a kind of *gendarmerie* supported by the citizens, which kept down lawlessness and acted as a check on the power of the nobles. With

what was called an "auto de fé" or "act of faith," which was often attended by the king and his court. Territorial unity, now at length achieved, brought with it the idea of spiritual unity, which showed itself in the terrible persecution of the Jews by the Inquisition, leading up to the decree for their expulsion from Spain in 1492, and also in the war against the kingdom of Granada, the last remaining stronghold in Spain of the unbelieving Moors. The zeal displayed in both these proceedings earned for the sovereigns the title of the "Catholic Kings." During the year in which the Jews were expelled the war against Granada ended—after ten years of desultory fighting—in the withdrawal of Boabdil, the last



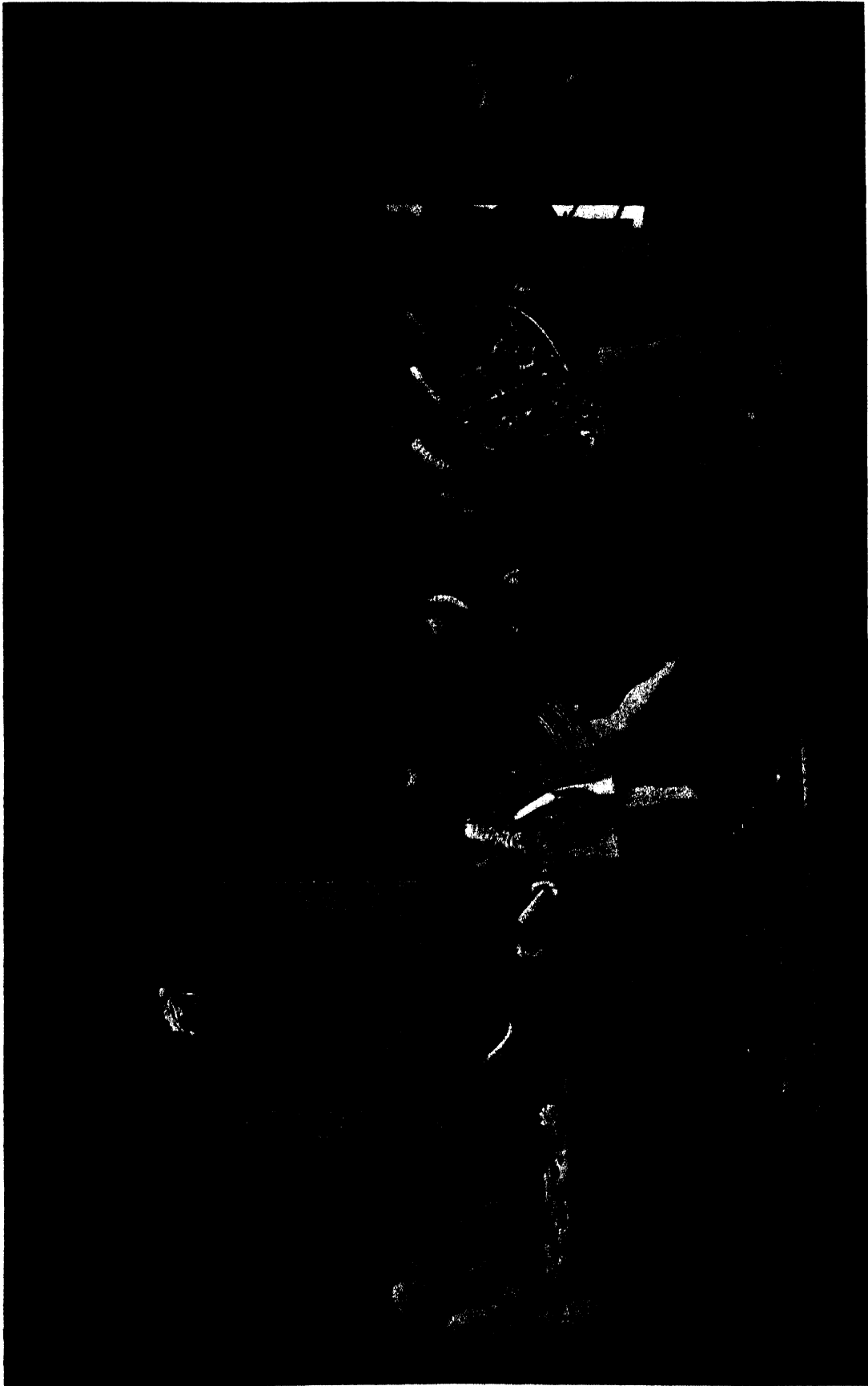
From the painting]

PHILIP II.

[By Antonio More.

The reign of Philip II. (1556-1598) marked the climax of the Spanish power and the beginnings of its dissolution. He was an absolutist and a fervent Catholic with whom no compromise with the monster of heresy was possible. His treatment of the Netherlands provoked the rising which led to the war of Dutch Independence. In private life his fanaticism was as conspicuous as in his public life.

order thus maintained and security ensured, and with accompanying reforms in the law and in taxation, the country prospered exceedingly, both population and revenue increasing greatly, a factor not without influence in the coming final struggle with the Moors. The other institution due to Isabella was the Holy Inquisition, now (1478 onwards) established in Castile for the extirpation of heresy. All whom the Inquisition could convict—often after grievous torture—of not accepting the Catholic faith, had to confess their guilt publicly, or be burned at the stake at



*From the painting by S. Aron.*

#### A DEPUTATION WAITING ON PHILIP II.

*[Copyright of Braun et Cie.]*

Philip II's temperament was naturally stern and suspicious. He had the inward fire of the religious zealot, but concealed his true feelings under a mask of formality. To his few intimate friends he was invariably gracious, but demanded exaggerated tokens of respect from others. Few men have left such a legacy of hate behind them, but few men have been so bigoted and bitter without worse motives than those of Philip II. He aroused hostility everywhere, and wasted the resources of his dominions in fruitless enterprises, but to the last he believed himself to be the minister of God.



From the painting]

[By Oliva.

## CERVANTES IN HIS LAST ILLNESS.

Though Cervantes is now known to the world through "Don Quixote," he did not rate that work as highly as some of his plays and novels which have not achieved immortality. It was not until his last days that he turned to the completion of his romance of "Peregrina and Sigismunda," a large part of which he dictated from his death-bed.

Moorish king in Spain, and the triumphal entry into the city of Ferdinand and Isabella. With the fall of Granada the long struggle between Moor and Christian for the possession of Spain ended. The terms of surrender were lenient, and such Moors as wished were allowed to remain in Granada; but they were placed under a Christian governor, and the Cross now prevailed throughout the land.

The year 1492 was a triumph for Isabella, for in this year three great schemes of varying merit in which she was interested were brought to a successful conclusion. Two have just been mentioned. The expulsion of the Jews was a loss to Spain, just as the destruction of the Moorish kingdom was a gain. The third scheme benefited all nations, and made the year 1492 memorable in the world's history. It was in this year that Columbus, under Isabella's patronage, sailed out to the west with three small vessels and discovered the West Indies, thus laying the foundation for the enormous expansion of the Spanish dominions in the New World, and for the temporary maritime supremacy of Spain in Europe.

Shortly after the siege of Granada, Ferdinand, as head of the house of Aragon, interfered in the affairs of Naples, and after the French had been driven out in 1504 by Gonzalo de Córdoba, famous in history as "the Great Captain," he annexed both Naples and Sicily to the crown of Aragon. This extension of his dominions abroad was followed by the annexation of the Spanish portion of Navarre in 1512, and its incorporation with Castile in 1515 brought all that is now the kingdom of Spain under one rule.

Meanwhile, in 1504, Isabella had died. Her death was preceded by those of her son John (1497) and her daughter Isabella (1498); and as Ferdinand was not King of Castile in his own right, the crown of that country reverted to Isabella's second daughter, Joanna. However, Joanna, who was married to the Archduke Philip of Austria, son of the Emperor Maximilian I., and ruler of the Netherlands, was already showing signs of insanity, and Isabella, therefore, in leaving the crown to Joanna, appointed the latter's eldest son, Charles, regent when he should come of age, and her own husband, Ferdinand, regent

till this took place. Ferdinand himself died in 1516, leaving Charles regent in his own kingdom of Aragon, as well as in Isabella's kingdom of Castile. The death of the young prince John had been a blow to his parents ; it was fraught with disastrous results to Spain. It placed a foreign prince on the throne of Spain, and led to her being drawn into the vortex of European politics. It led to a brief period of glory during which she was the first power in Europe, before she was mature enough for the part, and there followed inevitably a rapid decline from which the country has never recovered.

During the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, Spain made great progress intellectually. The recently-invented art of printing reached Spain in 1474 and helped to foster there the revival of learning which spread abroad from Italy. Several Spanish universities were founded about this time and many famous scholars were produced. The primate of Spain, Cardinal Jiménez de Cisneros, who in his zeal for the conversion of the Moors of Granada had persecuted them and burned their books, made some atonement by causing the first polyglot edition of the Bible to be magnificently printed at the University of Alcalá de Henares, which he had founded in 1499.

After the death of Ferdinand, as we have seen, Spain came under the rule of a foreign prince. Ferdinand's successor, Charles, was the first of a line of kings belonging to the Austrian House of Hapsburg who ruled in Spain for the next two hundred years, during which time the monarchy made itself absolute. From being regent, Charles soon forced his recognition as king, to the exclusion of his mad mother, and as such he arrived in Spain in 1517 from the Netherlands, where he had been born and educated, and over which he ruled. Ignorant even of the language of his new subjects, he was guided by the Flemish

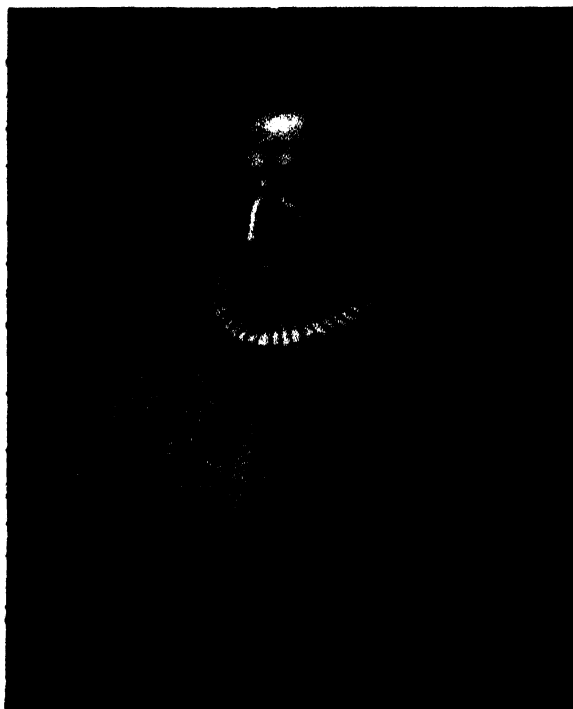


*From the painting]*

PHILIP IV. IN VELAZQUEZ' STUDIO.

*[By Ender.*

The features of Philip IV., features which have reappeared with little variation in his successors, are familiar to the world through the many portraits of him painted by the great Velazquez, whose work sheds lustre on his reign. Philip IV. was essentially a pleasure-lover and a great art patron, and was quick to recognize and encourage the genius of Velazquez.



MIGUEL DE CERVANTES SAAVEDRA (1547-1616).

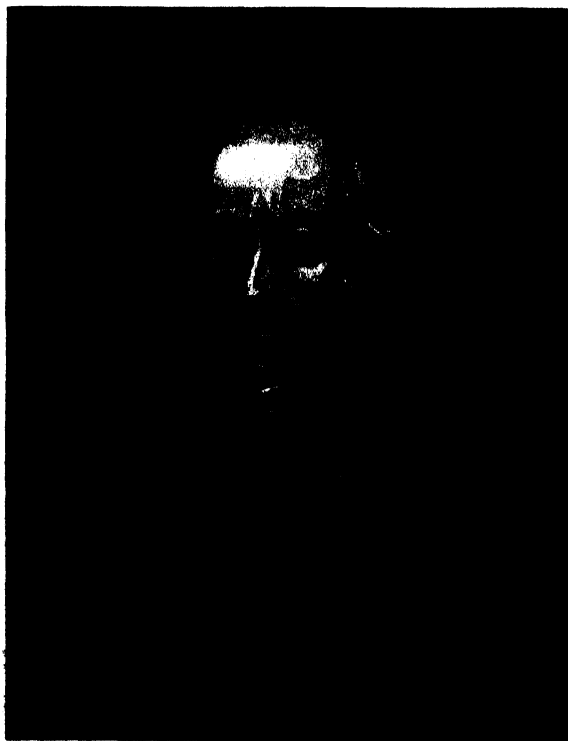
Cervantes, whose "Don Quixote" is part of the household furniture of every nation, was born in 1547. He was a soldier till the age of thirty, but then turned to literature, though it was not until 1605 that "Don Quixote" made its appearance. He died in 1616.

also opposed to the interests of the nobility, who consequently sided with the King, and with their help the Comuneros were crushed at Villalar (1521) and their leader, Padilla, executed. The important result was that Charles was able to raise supplies without redress of grievances. The first step towards an absolute monarchy was taken, and after that progress was easy.

Fortified now by Spanish money and troops, Charles was able to embark upon a series of wars against the French king, Francis I.; but as these were mostly in his foreign interests and took place mainly in Italy and the Netherlands, we cannot concern ourselves with them in this brief sketch. During these wars Spanish soldiers acquired their reputation for invincibility, and Spanish pride was flattered by the capture of Francis I. at the battle of Pavia (1525) and his subsequent detention in Madrid. The only campaign undertaken in the Spanish interest was that in North Africa, where the capture of Tunis (1535) was followed by a disastrous attempt against the piratical stronghold of Algiers. Meantime, while Charles was extending his empire in the Old World, Spanish mariners, by

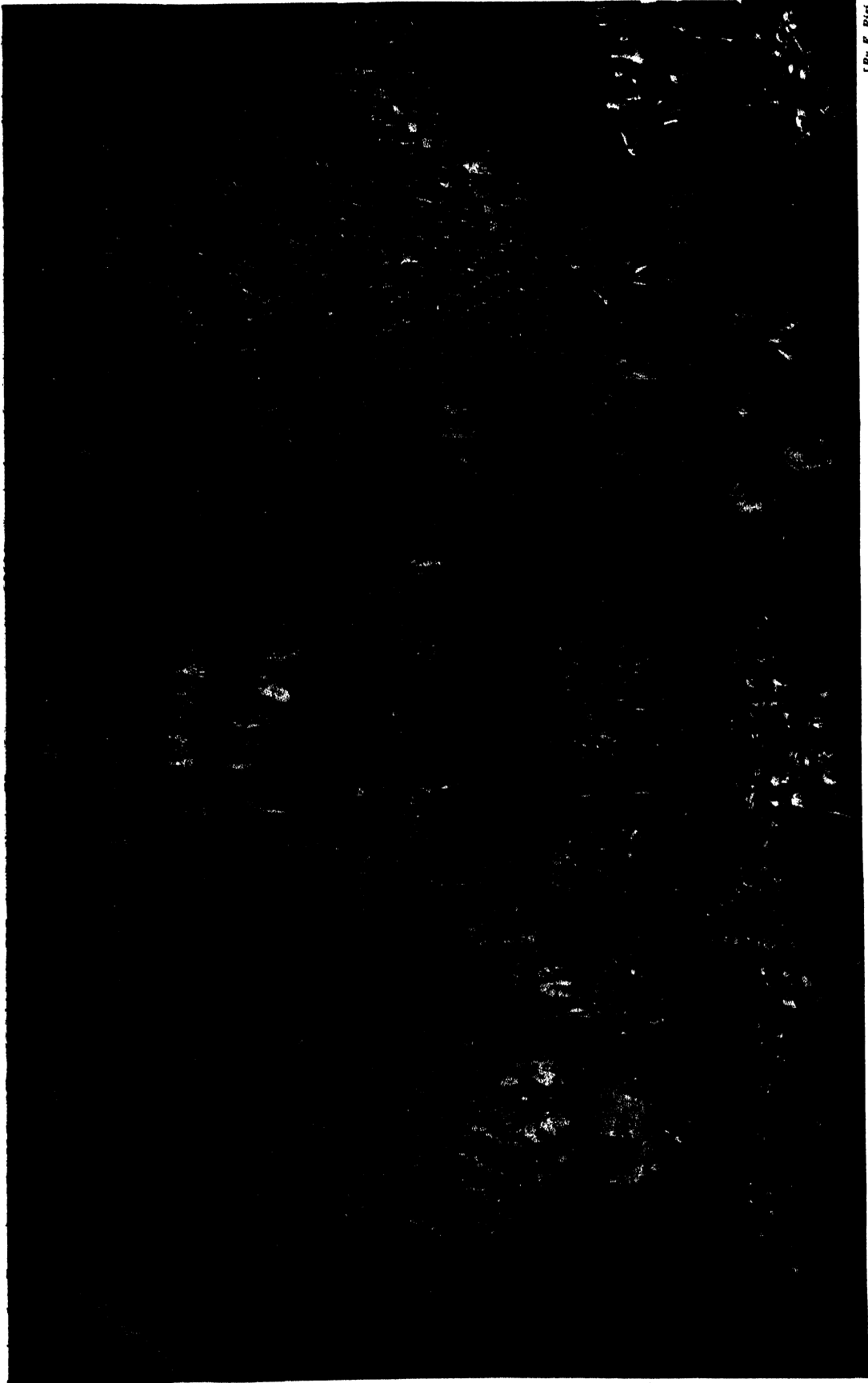
friends and advisers whom he brought] with him and who used their opportunities for enriching themselves, thus stirring up discontent among the Spaniards.

Upon the death of the Emperor Maximilian Charles not only succeeded to the Hapsburg inheritance, but was also elected Emperor of Germany, or rather of the Holy Roman Empire, which included the German states, the Swiss confederation, and most of the Netherlands and North Italy. From 1519 he was the Emperor Charles V., and Spain became part—a lesser part—of a large empire. His forthcoming coronation and his new interests demanded that Charles should raise supplies and also leave Spain, and his exactions and high-handed procedures fanned the existing discontent into an insurrection, known as the rising of the *Comunidades* or the *Comuneros*. Objecting to providing money for foreign purposes, various communities, headed by Toledo, revolted under the leadership of Juan de Padilla, a young noble. Successful at first, they formulated demands which would have made Charles a constitutional monarch. But their demands were



PEDRO CALDERON DE LA BARCA (1600-1681).

Calderon, the greatest of Spanish dramatists, and indeed one of the world's greatest dramatists, was born in 1600. He commenced writing plays at the age of fourteen, and soon attracted the attention of Philip IV., who became a generous patron to him. He died in 1681.



*From the painting*

AN AUTO-DE-FE AT MADRID (1680).

An Auto-de-Fé, or Act of Faith, was the ceremony during which sentences of the Spanish Inquisition were read and enforced. It took place in public on some special anniversary, never a feast day, and the King and his court with the ministers of state, who all swore obedience to the Inquisition, were present. A procession comprising the members of the Holy Office with its agents, and also the condemned persons, took place. Mass was then celebrated and a sermon preached by the Grand Inquisitor, the burnings being subsequently carried out. The greatest of the Spanish Inquisitors was Thomas de Torquemada.

[By F. Rivi.]





From the painting]

PHILIP IV. (PORTRAIT).

[By Velasquez.

Philip IV. succeeded in 1621. His abilities were unquestionable, and he might have made a great name for himself had he not accustomed himself to rely on the advice, not always disinterested, of favourites. His reign began with brilliant military successes and ended in disaster. Holland was lost, Portugal recovered her independence in 1640, and Philip died in 1665 ruined and discredited.

from the Spanish Bishop Bartolomé de las Casas.

The Emperor Charles, of course, took no part in these American conquests. He was fully occupied with his European campaigns, which so undermined his health that he relinquished the imperial control in 1555 and the Spanish crown in 1556, retiring to the monastery of Yuste, near Plasencia, where he died in 1558.

Upon Charles's retirement his brother Ferdinand was elected Emperor of Germany, but his son Philip succeeded to the throne of Spain as Philip II. Unfortunately for Spain he also acquired his father's hereditary possessions in the Netherlands—and his war against the French into the bargain. It was during this war that the Spaniards, under the Duke of Savoy, inflicted on the French at Saint Quentin in 1557 the greatest defeat they had suffered in their own country since Henry V. of England overcame them at Agincourt; and it was

their explorations, were preparing the way for the expansion of their country's possessions in the New World. The discoveries of Columbus had been very soon followed by a demarcation of the spheres of influence of the rival Spaniards and Portuguese, the pioneers in maritime discovery. Brazil, discovered by the Portuguese mariner Cabral in 1500, fell to the share of Portugal, but the rest of South America, with Central America and the southern part of North America, came eventually into the hands of the Spaniards. The most dramatic features of the Spanish occupation were the conquest of Mexico by Cortes and a few hundred Spaniards (1519-21) and that of Peru by the brothers Pizarro (1531-41). Although these conquests were partly undertaken to establish the Catholic religion in the newly-found countries, they were accompanied by sufficient slaughter and cruelty to call forth protests



From the painting]

THE DUKE OF OLIVAREZ.

[By Velasquez.

Olivarez, born in 1587, became favourite and chief minister of Philip IV. In pursuance of an absolutist policy he roused intense opposition in Spain, but he was an able man and not altogether responsible for the succession of disasters which marked Philip's reign. The loss of Portugal and other misfortunes roused popular feeling to such a pitch that Philip was obliged to dismiss Olivarez in 1643.



THE OLD FORT, PORTO RICO.

The island was discovered by Columbus in 1493. The fortress has been several times attacked by the English and also by the Dutch, but without success.

became with Philip a policy of religious unity throughout the empire—a policy of imperial Catholicism. Philip came to regard himself as appointed by God to champion the Catholic Church, and he squandered Spain's resources of men and money in an attempt to bring the world within the true fold by force of arms. "I will never be a ruler of heretics," he declared; and to a victim of the Inquisition who, on his way to the stake, protested against the cruel tortures inflicted on him, Philip replied: "If my son were as perverse as you, I myself would carry the fuel to burn him." This spirit of religious fanaticism is the Spanish lives were wasted in the attempt to suppress the Flemish and the Dutch, the terrible Duke of Alva defeating his own ends by his stony-hearted cruelty. The revolt in the Netherlands was favoured by Protestant England, a country well known to Philip, for in 1554, before he became king of Spain, he had married "Bloody" Queen Mary. There was thus a prospect that some day England and Spain might be united under a single ruler; but four years after her marriage the Catholic Mary died childless, and under her Protestant successor, Elizabeth, the diverse policies and clashing interests of the two countries soon led to the war that brought Philip his greatest

in honour of this victory that Philip built, on the slopes of the mountains north of Madrid, the royal monastery of the Escorial, where he and his successors, with their consorts, are buried.

Philip was not a campaigner like his father. He took up his residence in Spain and made Madrid his capital, where, with the help of the standing army created by the constant wars, and more especially with that of the Holy Inquisition, which he used for political purposes, he made himself absolute monarch of his vast dominions in the Old and New Worlds. The policy of religious unity throughout Spain pursued by the "Catholic Kings"

keynote of the wars which filled his reign.

At home, the Moors who remained in the old kingdom of Granada were goaded into revolt in 1568 and were only with difficulty suppressed after two years by the famous captain, Don John of Austria, Philip's half-brother. In the Mediterranean, fighting for the Holy League against the Turks, this same Don John won the glorious naval battle of Lepanto (1571) which for ever broke the sea-power of the Sultans. In the Netherlands, which he had inherited, Philip was brought into touch with Protestantism in revolt, and endless Spanish treasure and countless



A MONASTERY IN CALIFORNIA.

The Spanish missions were of great economical importance to California, and between 1769 and 1823 there were twenty-one. The monastery here seen is San Luis Rey.



THE FORT AT SANTO DOMINGO.

Santo Domingo forms part of the island of Haiti, and it was discovered by Columbus in 1492. The Spaniards exterminated the natives and introduced negroes from Africa.

disappointment and disillusionment. The story of the "*Invincible Armada*," which took three years to fit out, and which was to crush the power of England, belongs as much to our own history as to Spanish, and needs no telling in detail here. Even while it was fitting out, the impudent Drake appeared suddenly before Cadiz and burned all the ships that had been gathered together in the bay. Next year (1588) when the Armada sailed, Drake and Howard, with their small but active vessels, utterly



*From the painting]*

*[By Goya y Lucientes.*

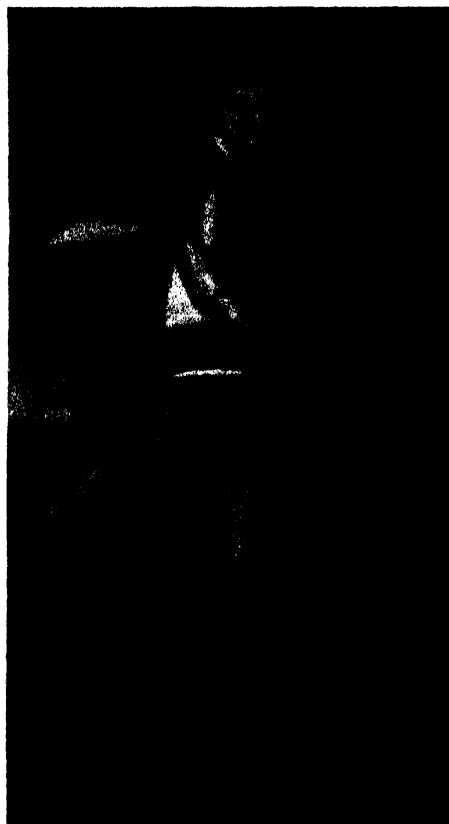
#### GENERAL PALAFOX.

General Palafox, born in 1780, distinguished himself by his heroic defence of Saragossa against the French. The place fell after a six months' siege, and Palafox was kept a prisoner in France until 1813, when he returned to Spain and was rewarded with the highest military honours.

through his mother, Isabella of Portugal. With the help of the Duke of Alva, recalled from temporary disfavour to lead the Spanish army, Portugal was annexed, and the whole peninsula for a brief period was ruled by a single king. With Portugal, the Portuguese foreign possessions fell into the hands of Spain. The acquisition of Brazil brought the whole of the occupied portion

defeated their unwieldy opponents in the English Channel, and a violent storm completed the destruction. Out of one hundred and thirty vessels which had left Spain, only some sixty battered hulks returned. Not England's power, but Spain's, was broken.

In the Netherlands, too, Philip lost ground; but meantime he had extended his already large dominions in other directions. In 1580 the Portuguese reigning dynasty came to an end, and Philip claimed the throne



*From the painting]*

*[By Goya y Lucientes.*

#### FERDINAND VII.

Ferdinand VII. succeeded Charles IV. in 1808, but did not begin to rule until the French had been expelled from Spain in 1814. He then showed himself weak, vindictive and cruel, and earned undying hatred by his persecution of the Liberals. A revolution occurred in 1820, and he remained a prisoner in the hands of the insurgents for three years until his restoration by the French.



*From the painting]*

*[By Goya y Lucientes.*

#### CHARLES IV.

Charles IV., who succeeded in 1788, was King of Spain during one of the most disastrous periods of her history. He was despotic but weak-minded to the point of imbecility, and the government was really in the hands of his wife and her lover, Godoy. He abdicated in 1808 in favour of Napoleon, from whom he accepted a pension. He died at Rome in 1819.



#### AVILA.

The city stands on the summit of a hill rising out of an arid plateau strewn with boulders. The old walls, which are in good preservation, are built of brown granite. Entrance to the old citadel is obtained by nine different gateways.



#### TOLEDO.

Like Avila, Toledo lies in the midst of an arid wilderness. The city has a somewhat sombre appearance, and windows of houses open on to inner courtyards presenting bare walls to the narrow winding streets. Viewed from a distance Toledo has the appearance of being a vast granite fortress.



THE DEFENCE OF GIBRALTAR, 1782.

The War of American Independence gave Spain an opportunity for besieging Gibraltar whilst England was engaged elsewhere. The siege, which lasted from 1779 to 1783, is justly notable. The Spanish opposed the fortress of Gibraltar by siege works on land and by the combined attacks of the French and Spanish fleets at sea.

of America under Philip's sway. The most westerly Spanish possessions in the Philippines (named after Philip himself) met the most easterly Portuguese possessions in the Gulf of Guinea, and gave Philip an empire on which the sun never set. He was the most powerful potentate in Europe, and under him Spain reached the summit of her glory. But even in his time signs of the decadence into which the country fell under his successors were visible. The Spaniards were the most heavily taxed nation in Europe; but all the money was spent unproductively in furthering Philip's ambitious schemes of conquest. The gold supplied from the American colonies went the same way—when it did not fall into the hands of English or Dutch pirates—and nothing was sent out to America in return. With all this, the complete failure of the Armada showed that the country was unequal to the strain to which it was subjected by Philip. Yet to the end he was at war with England and the Netherlands, and two years before he died a combined English and Dutch fleet sacked and burned Cadiz. Philip died in 1598 at the Escorial, where he was buried.

The decadence which had already begun in Philip II.'s time progressed rapidly under his son and successor, Philip III. The father had kept the reins of government in his own hands, himself supervising even the smallest details. But Philip III., who came to the throne at the age of twenty, was a pleasure-loving monarch, and left the control of the kingdom to worthless favourites and their parasites, under whom there flourished the system of place- and pension-hunting so familiar from the pages of Le Sage's "Gil Blas." The expenses of the court increased enormously. The country's resources hitherto had been wasted in supporting the wars of Charles V. and Philip II., but now they had to support the courtiers as well, and when there was not enough to go round, it was the soldiers who remained unpaid. The country needed peace, and peace was made with England in 1604, the death of Elizabeth and the accession of James I. having facilitated this. Five years later a truce was arranged in the Netherlands, which practically

amounted to the recognition of Dutch independence. But the good effects of peace were nullified in this same year by one of the greatest crimes and blunders ever made in Spain. More than once previously the Moors had been expelled from certain districts, but in 1609 a decree was published expelling them from the whole of Spain. A time limit of three days placed them and their possessions at the mercy of a greedy populace, and they left under harrowing circumstances. Thus Spain was deprived at a blow of some half a million of her most useful citizens, for much of the trade and most of the agriculture of the country had long been left to the Moors. The Spaniards, whose pride forced them wherever possible into the unproductive professions of courtier, soldier, or priest, could not make good the loss from among their own number, and the agriculture of the country has never recovered from the blow. When Philip III. died in 1621 he left Spain involved in the Thirty Years' War, which had broken out in 1618. Philip was inclined to peace when he died, but his successor, Philip IV., another pleasure-loving monarch, continued the system of governing by favourites, who involved the country in continuous wars. Neither Spain nor England was directly concerned in the questions at issue in the Thirty Years' War, but both countries soon found themselves involved on opposite sides owing to their respective royal family relationships. But this was not before James I. had vainly tried to bring the two countries together by a marriage between his son Charles, afterwards Charles I., and the Spanish Infanta Maria. Matters got as far as a surprise visit to Madrid by Charles and the favourite Buckingham; but although the pair were lavishly entertained, Charles did not succeed even in seeing the Infanta. The projected marriage fell through, and the countries were soon at war. In the year of Philip IV.'s accession the truce with the Dutch came to an end, and war was renewed with them also. One of the incidents in this war was the siege of Breda, the surrender of which after ten months has been immortalized by a masterpiece of the Spanish painter Velazquez. Later in the reign the French, then increasing in power under Richelieu's régime, were added to the number of



*From the painting]*

*[By W. Hamilton.*

## THE DESTRUCTION OF SPANISH BATTERING SHIPS AT GIBRALTAR, 1782.

The Spanish attacked the fortress of Gibraltar with ten ships lying at half a gunshot's distance. These were built of green timber and with sides from six to seven feet thick. The fortress replied with red-hot shot and gradually gained the mastery of the Spanish, whose ships were completely destroyed by fire.

Spain's enemies, and the disastrous defeat of the Spaniards by the great Condé at the battle of Rocroi (1643) dealt the prestige of the Spanish infantry as severe a blow as the defeat of the Invincible Armada had done to that of the Spanish navy.

But meantime serious events were taking place at home. The year 1640 saw revolts both in the recently annexed Portugal and in Catalonia. Spain's hands were so full and her means so exhausted that Portugal, after sixty years of subjection, with hardly a blow recovered her independence, which she the Emperor Charles V., counting in Spain as King Charles I.). The new king was only four years old, and half-imbecile, so that he never exercised much control over the government of the country. This was left in the hands of the queen-mother, Maria Anna of Austria, and the evil Austrian influence that had worked Spain's ruin was continued. So too was the government by favourites—first foreign

has ever since maintained. The Catalan revolt was suppressed, but only after twelve years, and in that interval other revolts had occurred in Naples and Sicily. In 1648 the claim of sovereignty over Holland was definitely surrendered by the official recognition of the Dutch independence, while another blow was struck at Spain by the capture of Jamaica in 1655 by the English. By the time of Philip's death, ten years later, Spain had ceased to be the preponderating power in Europe.

Philip IV. left the succession to his son, Charles II. (his ancestor,



ADMIRAL GRAVINA.

In command of the Spanish fleet at the battle of Trafalgar, October 21st, 1805.



From the painting]

[By Whitcomb]

#### THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR, 1805

Owing to the condition of their ships the French and Spanish officers were unwilling to risk an engagement. But Napoleon was determined that the combined fleets should give battle, and they accordingly put to sea, though in ignorance of the real numbers of the English fleet. The battle was great and decisive, and only eleven ships of the Allies escaped to Cadiz.



*From the painting*

#### THE INSURRECTION AT MADRID, 1808.

The occupation of Madrid by the French and the refusal of Napoleon to recognize Ferdinand VII. as King of Spain roused the bitter hostility of the Spanish. The populace rose in revolt on May 2nd, 1808, and disturbances broke out on the Plaza de Palacio. Murat, hearing the news, sent a battalion of soldiers with two guns, but firing by the troops was the signal for a general insurrection. Don Pedro Velarde and Don Luis Daoiz, Spanish officers in command of artillery, took the side of the people and a deadly conflict followed. The revolt was finally quelled by the work of Joachim Murat's tyrannous edict.

*[By M. Castellano.]*





From the painting]

[By J. Aranda.

### "A DIFFICULT MOVE!"

The picture represents a scene in a Spanish café during the time of the Peninsular War. In the foreground soldiers are seen in deep thought over the next move in a game of chess, unconscious of the attentions of Spanish ladies behind them.

and then native. Under this combination the country went from bad to worse. The Inquisition revived its activities, and emigration to America increased. France was becoming as powerful under Louis XIV. as Spain was becoming weak, and the French king took advantage of Spain's internal condition to enrich his country at the expense of the Spanish possessions on his north-eastern border.

Although Charles was twice married, he had no children, so that the question of his successor became an acute one, over which the various powers in Europe intrigued both in Spain and among themselves. Under the kings of the Austrian House of Hapsburg Spain had interfered in the affairs of Europe, but now that the line was becoming extinct it was Europe's turn to interfere in the affairs of Spain. The Emperor Leopold I., the representative of the other branch of the Austrian house, tried to secure the Spanish succession for his son, the Archduke Charles, while the French King, Louis XIV., endeavoured to acquire it for one of his sons or grandsons. In spite of the low condition into which Spain itself had sunk, the acquisition of the whole of the Spanish dominions by either of these would disturb the balance of power in Europe, and so schemes were set on foot for the division of the Spanish empire between the rival candidates. But in the midst of all this Charles died, bequeathing, under the influence of French intrigues, the succession to Philip of Anjou, a grandson of Louis XIV.

With Charles II., then, the Spanish line of the Hapsburgs became extinct, and the connection between the Spanish and Austrian reigning houses ceased. For nearly two centuries the Spanish people had been the victims of their monarchs, who bled them to fight in their European interests. It was a peculiar

irony of fate that while most of the wars had been against the French, the last act of the last of this line of kings should have been to disinherit a collateral branch of his own family and hand over Spain to a member of the French Bourbon house.

During the two centuries that followed the downfall of the Moorish kingdom of Granada Spain had developed with amazing suddenness, and decayed with equal rapidity. Within a century after achieving unity she had become the first power in Europe, and acquired a world-empire. And as in England in the spacious days of the Good Queen Bess, so in Spain material expansion was accompanied by a great development in art and letters. Before the existence of a united Spain, Spanish literature had been practically without influence beyond the Pyrenees ; but under the Philips Spain became a world-power in literature. A contemporary of Shakespeare's was Cervantes, who, after being wounded at the battle of Lepanto, spending some years as a slave in Algiers, and acting as a commissioner for provisioning the Invincible Armada, achieved immortality by writing " Don Quixote," one of the world's greatest novels. Another contemporary, who actually sailed with the Armada, was the dramatist Lope de Vega, one of the world's greatest creative geniuses, whose five hundred surviving pieces represent only about a quarter of his total output. Equally well known is the somewhat later dramatist Calderon. These and others made Spanish literature of the time of the Philips—especially the first two—a source from which French and English writers freely drew their inspiration. The names of the painters Velazquez and Murillo—to mention only the two most popular—show how eminent Spain became in art also. But the period of glory was short-lived. The material poverty into which the country had sunk by the time of Charles II. was accompanied by intellectual barrenness, which lasted over the next century.

For the most part, Philip V. was well received in Spain ; but his accession to the Spanish dominions gave the Bourbon family too much power in Europe, and a great coalition was formed against Spain and France. Spain was thus soon involved in another European war—the War of the Spanish Succession—only this time she was ranged with her old enemy France against her former allies Austria and Germany.



THE BATTLE OF CORUNNA, 1809.

The battle was fought on the 16th of January, 1809. The French under Marshal Soult attempted to prevent the embarkation of the English troops. In the engagement which followed Sir John Moore was mortally wounded, and he was buried on the ramparts close to the sea.

who were joined by England and Holland in the interests of the balance of power in Europe. The War of the Spanish Succession forms part of English history, too familiar from the victories of the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene to need telling in detail here. The decisive battles—Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde and Malplaquet—were fought far away from Spain, which did not take a prominent part in the war. But two notable events took place in the peninsula—the destruction of the combined French and Spanish fleets in the Bay of Vigo by the English and Dutch, and the capture of Gibraltar in 1704 by the English fleet under Admiral Rooke. The war was a disastrous one for Spain. By the Peace of Utrecht in 1713 she lost her possessions in Italy and the Netherlands, while Gibraltar was retained by the English, who also obtained important trading concessions with the Spanish colonies in America. For the Spaniards themselves a memorable commercial change was made in Philip's reign. The monopoly in American trade



*From the painting]*

*[By M. Orange.*

#### THE DEFENDERS OF SARAGOSSA.

Saragossa reached the height of its fame during the siege of 1808. General José de Palafox, whose subordinate officers were a priest and two peasants, held the city with an ill-equipped army of citizens from June 15th to August 15th. The French were obliged to raise the siege till December, but the city was captured on January 29th, 1809, after a heroic resistance. Byron immortalized Maria Agustín, the peasant maid of Saragossa, in "Childe Harold."

granted for administrative reasons to Seville, which had thereby become one of the most opulent of cities, was abolished, and the colonial trade was opened up to all Spain.

The treaty of Utrecht did not bring lasting peace to Spain. The ambitions of Philip's second wife, Elizabeth Farnese of Parma, and her Italian adviser, Alberoni, soon involved the country in war again. Sardinia and Sicily were reconquered in violation of the treaty of Utrecht, with the natural result that a new coalition was formed against Spain, and after a war which placed the American colonies in danger, the reconquests had to be given up. In the middle of his reign Philip was overtaken by the religious melancholy which had afflicted some of his predecessors of the House of Hapsburg, and in 1724 he abdicated in favour of his eldest son; but the latter's death after a few months brought him back to the throne again. In the remaining part of his reign Spain was involved in another dynastic war—the War of the Austrian Succession—as well as in further wars with England. But in spite of the fact that wars were hardly less numerous than before, Spain derived great benefit from the change in the ruling house. Before Philip



*From the painting*

### THE SURRENDER OF BAILEN. 1808.

The surrender of Bailen by General Dupont to the Spanish commander Castaños on the 23<sup>rd</sup> of July, 1808, was the first great check to the French during the Peninsular War. Whilst Dupont was laden with plunder from the sack of Cordova, General Castaños, with an Andalusian army and a large body of armed peasants, fell upon his army, placing themselves between a detachment guarding the mountain passes and the main French army. The victory was complete, and an army of over twenty thousand men surrendered.

*[By J. Casado del Alisal.]*



THE BATTLE OF TALAVERA, 1809.

The Spanish army, under General Cuesta, joined forces with the British for the battle of Talavera, which lasted two days. The British fought in a half-starved condition, and having defeated the army of Marshal Victor, they turned to find Marshal Soult advancing in their rear. But by deftly retreating across the Tagus, Wellesley extricated himself from a dangerous position.

died in 1746 French influences had been responsible for many financial and administrative reforms which greatly improved the condition of the country.

Under Philip's son Ferdinand VI., Spain enjoyed the peace which it needed for the consolidation of a still vast and rich empire. There is consequently little to chronicle, except that the reforms initiated in the previous reign were continued under the guidance of ministers like the Marquis of Ensenada, while the foundations for a new navy and army were laid. Ferdinand died in 1759, and having no issue, was succeeded by his brother, Charles III. Under its new ruler, Spain, in alliance with France, was soon at war with England again, once more with disastrous results. Portugal joined England, and Spain gained some slight successes at the expense of her neighbour. But English fleets captured Havana and Manila, which were exchanged for Florida when peace was made in 1763. With peace came further progress. Canals and roads were constructed and education was improved, while attempts were made to reform even the colonial administration. Some of the reforms now introduced provoked outbreaks among the conservative populace, and the fact that the Jesuits were suspected of complicity was made an excuse for expelling them from Spain in 1767.

The revolt of the English colonies in North America and the outbreak of the War of Independence in 1776 provided France and Spain with an opportunity for making war on England. The Spaniards retook Minorca, which the English then held; but their part in the war is more memorable for what they did not accomplish than for what they did accomplish. With the help of the French, they besieged Gibraltar, the garrison of which never exceeded seven thousand men, while the Spaniards had forty thousand men and fifty ships. Much was expected from "fireproof" floating batteries, the invention of a French officer; but the English set fire to these with red-hot shot, and the fortress was still untaken after a three years' siege when peace was signed in 1783. Five years later Charles died. He was succeeded by his son Charles IV., a feeble monarch, who was entirely overshadowed by his coarse and licentious consort, Maria Louisa of Parma, and her paramour, Emanuel Godoy, who strangely enough was also the king's favourite and soon became his chief minister. Charles had scarcely ascended the throne when the French Revolution broke out, changing the course of Spanish history as well as that of other countries. The execution of the French King, Louis XVI., in 1793, in view of the relationship between the royal houses of France and Spain, at once led to a war between the two countries. France was invaded by

Spanish armies at both ends of the Pyrenees. The troops, however, were badly supplied ; they were soon driven back, and Spain in its turn was effectually invaded by the French. The royal family took fright, and the Queen and Godoy concluded the Peace of Basel (1795). Spain lost part of the island of Santo Domingo, but Godoy gained the title of " The Prince of the Peace," the people being much impressed by the apparently favourable terms granted them. The treaty really, however, made Spain subservient to France. The position was emphasized next year in an offensive and defensive alliance concluded with France, which involved Spain in a war with England. As far as Spain was concerned, the operations were mainly naval. A numerically far superior Spanish fleet was defeated by Jervis and Nelson off Cape St. Vincent, and the unfortunate city of Cadiz suffered yet one more bombardment. Nelson also made an attack on the island of Tenerife, in which he was not only unsuccessful, but lost an arm.

Shortly after this Godoy fell from power, but he was reinstated through the influence of Napoleon, who wished to use him as a tool for the furtherance of his own schemes. In the interests of France, Spain was compelled to reduce Portugal, a firm ally of England. What was worse, she was drawn into Napoleon's wars with England, and at the battle of Trafalgar in 1805 saw her naval power utterly destroyed by Nelson. With her fleet shattered and her treasury exhausted, Spain now found herself in danger of losing her colonies.

The disasters of the war brought the country to a state of revolution. The people's hatred of Godoy, who was held responsible, was only equalled by their enthusiasm for the heir-apparent, Charles's son Ferdinand, to whom they looked for salvation. A rising took place at the royal residence of Aranjuez, and the king was compelled to abdicate in his son's favour. But Ferdinand's glory was short-lived. Napoleon, then master of most of the European continent, had troops in the Peninsula operating against Portugal, and he seized the opportunity which the condition of Spain afforded him for sending them to occupy Madrid and getting the royal family into his power. Charles and Ferdinand were forced to place the crown of Spain at Napoleon's feet, Charles becoming a pensioner of the French government, and Ferdinand being detained in strict confinement. Napoleon bestowed the crown of Spain on his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, who was well intentioned ; but the position of a monarch inflicted on the Spanish



THE BATTLE OF FUENTES D'ONOR, 1811.

The fortresses guarding the two chief roads from Portugal into Spain were all, except Elvas, in French possession. Wellington therefore instructed Spencer to invest Almeida whilst he went to Badajoz. But news arrived that Masséna was advancing to relieve Almeida, and he was compelled to go north. He was attacked first by Loison, and then by Masséna at Fuentes D'Onor. The French, however, were unable to drive off the English, and Almeida fell on May 11th, 1811.



From the painting]

[By W. Hilton, R.A.]

## ENTRY OF WELLINGTON INTO MADRID

Following the decisive victory of Salamanca, Wellington entered Madrid on the 12th of August, 1812, Joseph Bonaparte having retired before him. Quantities of stores, one hundred and eighty guns, and two eagle standards were captured, besides one thousand seven hundred men.

people from without was a hopeless one. Even before he reached Madrid in 1808 there had occurred the rising against Napoleon's troops in the capital famous in the Spanish annals as "the Second of May." On that day the citizens of Madrid, joined later by the Spanish artillery, made a ferocious attack on the French, which was mercilessly repressed and ended at night in the shooting of all civilians found in the possession of any kind of arms, an event immortalized by the Spanish painter Goya.

Joseph's government was everywhere opposed. The country was in a constant state of guerilla warfare, and local committees called Juntas were set up to govern their respective districts. For some time the French trained armies swept the irregular Spanish bands before them, but at length the surrender of a French army of nearly twenty thousand men at Bailen, on the way to Cordova, compelled Napoleon to appear in person in Madrid. The English then carried the war against Napoleon into the Peninsula, and for the next five years purely Spanish affairs are overshadowed by the Peninsular War. It is unnecessary to enter into such familiar details as the operations of Sir John Moore or the campaigns of Wellington against Napoleon in Spain, which belong properly to English history. The Spaniards were more concerned in the defence of their cities, several of which underwent memorable sieges. The most famous is that of Saragossa, where "the Maid of Saragossa," celebrated by Byron in "Childe Harold," worked one of the guns in place of her dead lover. Cadiz, too, the centre of Spanish resistance, was besieged for over two years, during which time the Cortes, or Parliament, assembled there, formulated for the kingdom a liberal constitution known as the Constitution of 1812. Next year Wellington's victory over the French at Vitoria, followed by his invasion of France and a further victory at Toulouse in 1814, made Joseph's position in Spain impossible. Napoleon himself, utterly beaten at Leipsic, was obliged to make peace with Spain and to return the crown to Ferdinand, whom he had held captive all this time.

The Cortes of Cadiz demanded that Ferdinand should accept their constitution; but the King, when he reached Madrid in the summer of 1814, was so enthusiastically received by the populace that he

felt strong enough to refuse. Dissolving the Cortes, and annulling all that they had done, he established himself as an absolute monarch. Deputies were imprisoned, and the adherents of the late king were expelled, while on the other hand the Jesuits were authorized to return, and the Inquisition, which had been suppressed by the Cortes of Cadiz, was restored.

The reign of Ferdinand VII., the prince on whom the people had once set such high hopes, was one of tyranny, interrupted by constant insurrections. These were not confined to Spain itself. This period saw the successful revolt of practically all the Spanish dominions in America. The Spanish-American colonists had before them the example of the United States of America, as well as the theories of the French Revolution, and they seized the occasion of Napoleon's interference in the Peninsula and his brother's occupation of the throne to shake off ties which they no longer felt binding. The year 1810 marked the beginning of the struggle, and although the loyal Spanish troops, who could look for little or no assistance from Spain, held out in various parts of the continent, in some fifteen years the colonists had thrown off the mother-country's yoke. The fighting was most severe in Mexico and Colombia. Mexico had won her independence by 1822, although the Spanish garrison in Vera Cruz held out for three years longer. In South America Simon Bolivar, aided by English veterans of the Peninsular War, founded the republic of Colombia, comprising the present Colombia, Ecuador and Venezuela, and then passed over into the north of Peru and set up the republic of Bolivia. Further south the Argentinians threw off the Spanish authority under the leadership of San Martin, who then crossed the Andes and helped Chile and Peru in their struggle. By the beginning of the second quarter of the century Cuba was the only important American possession which remained to Spain.

Meanwhile in Spain Ferdinand's tyrannical government caused numerous risings, culminating in a serious outbreak in the army encamped round Cadiz, awaiting embarkation for the unpopular war against the revolted American colonies. On New Year's Day, 1820, a subordinate officer in that army, Rafael Riego, headed a rebellion and proclaimed the Constitution of Cadiz. The movement did not

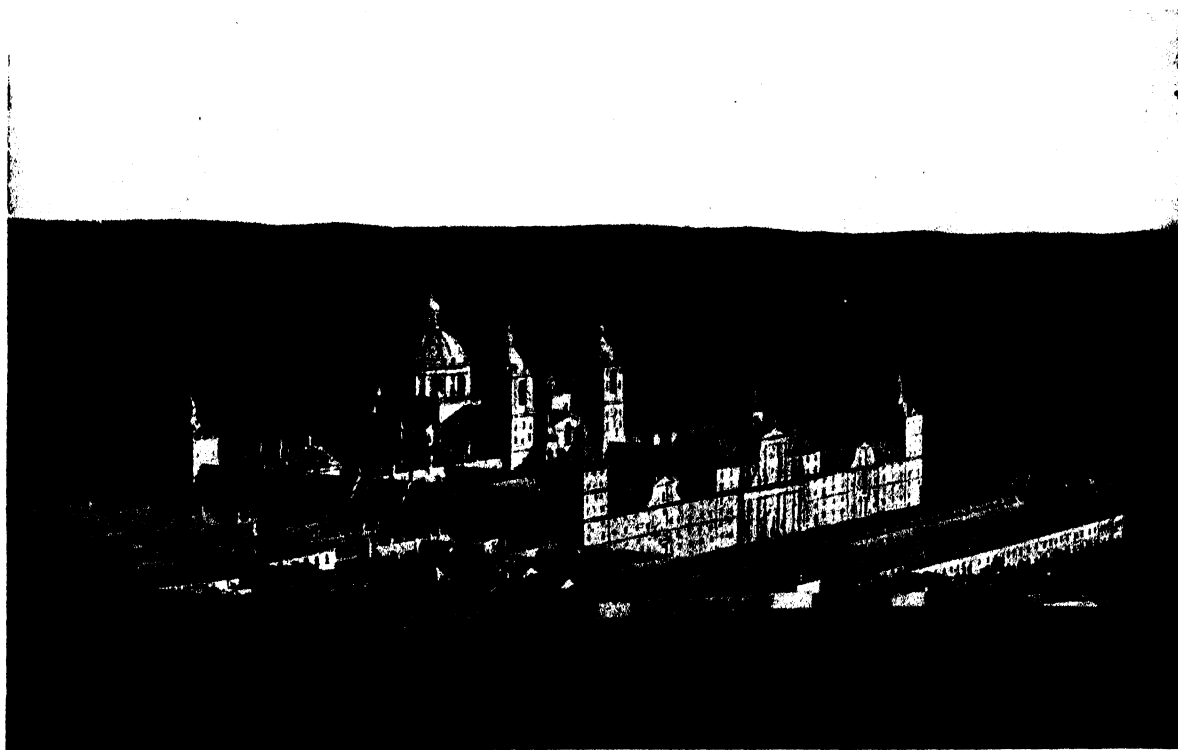


Photo by]

THE ESCORIAL.

[Laurens.

The Escorial, one of the most celebrated buildings in the world, lies a few miles north-west of Madrid. It was built between 1560 and 1584 by Philip II. in fulfilment of a vow to St. Lawrence taken at the battle of St. Quentin in 1557. In shape it resembles a grill, the reputed instrument of St. Lawrence's martyrdom



meet with the immediate local support that was expected ; but several towns in the north-west, followed by Saragossa and Barcelona in the east, also proclaimed the constitution. Spain was soon in a ferment, and when the army of the centre supported the revolutionaries, the frightened king gave way. In the presence of the municipal council of Madrid and a provisional government, Ferdinand took the oath to the constitution administered to him by the Archbishop of Toledo ; the Cortes were resummoned, and for three years the country was in the hands of a Liberal government. The proceedings of this government aroused opposition not only in Spain, but generally in Europe, France especially fearing the effect of its example on her own restored dynasty. At the Congress of Verona in 1822 the European powers decided to intervene in Spanish affairs and re-establish the absolute monarchy, England alone holding aloof. France sent into Spain an army of one hundred thousand men, which, except in certain districts, was welcomed by the people. The Cortes withdrew again to Cadiz. With them went the king, a prisoner,



*From the painting]*

#### EXECUTION OF TORRIJOS AND HIS COMPANIONS, 1831.

*[By Gihbert.*

After surrendering to General Mina in 1823, Don José María Torrijos, the Constitutional Reformer, retired to Gibraltar. In 1831 he determined to renew his efforts to free Spain. But on going to Malaga, he was taken prisoner with forty-eight of his companions. They were tried by court-martial and shot on December 11th, 1831.

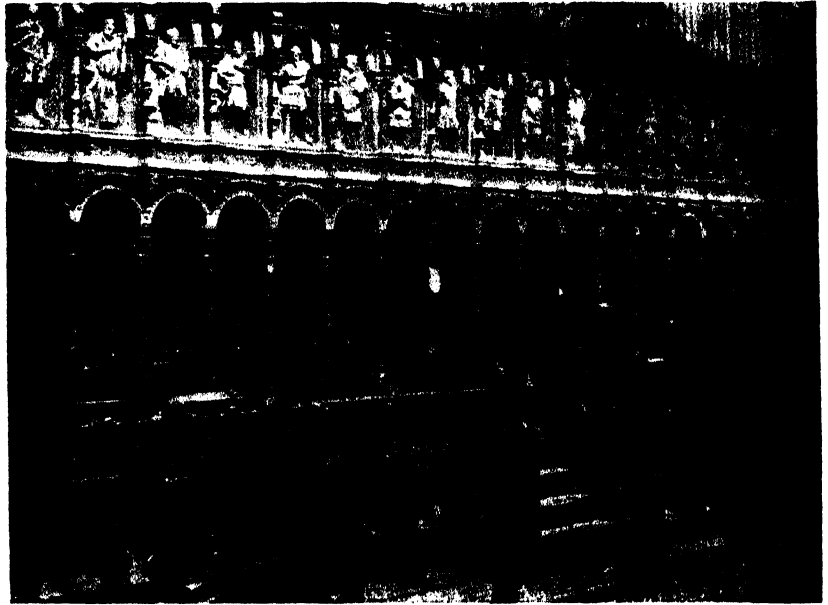
whom some of the extreme faction would have executed. But when Cadiz fell before the French, Ferdinand was released after promising pardon to his Liberal subjects. The promise was no sooner made than broken, and Ferdinand's triumphal entry into Madrid was preceded by the execution of the figurehead of the revolution, Rafael Riego. Ferdinand now became more tyrannical than ever. There were endless executions of Liberals, the justification for most of which may be judged from the fact that a woman was executed in Granada for embroidering the words " Law, Liberty, Equality," on a banner.

The absolutist party gathered round Ferdinand in the latter part of his reign looked to his brother Charles, their leader, to succeed him ; for Ferdinand, although he had been married three times, had no surviving children. In 1829, however, he married as his fourth wife Maria Christina of Naples, and had two daughters, to the elder of whom, Isabella, he left the crown on his death in 1833, with the queen-mother as regent. But the followers of Charles, the Carlists, aided by the clerical party, refused to recognize the female succession, and for six years they carried on the " Carlist War " against the queen-mother,

who was forced to look for support to the Constitutionalists. The war was mainly confined to the mountainous Basque country, Catalonia and Valencia. It was a guerilla war conducted without quarter, the barbarities of the Carlists, especially under the Valencian leader Ramon Cabrera, being matched by the reprisals of the Royalist troops. In the end the exhaustion of the Carlists rather than the power of the government led to the Convention of Vergara in 1839, which brought peace to the Basque district, and enabled the government to clear the rebels out of Valencia and Catalonia.

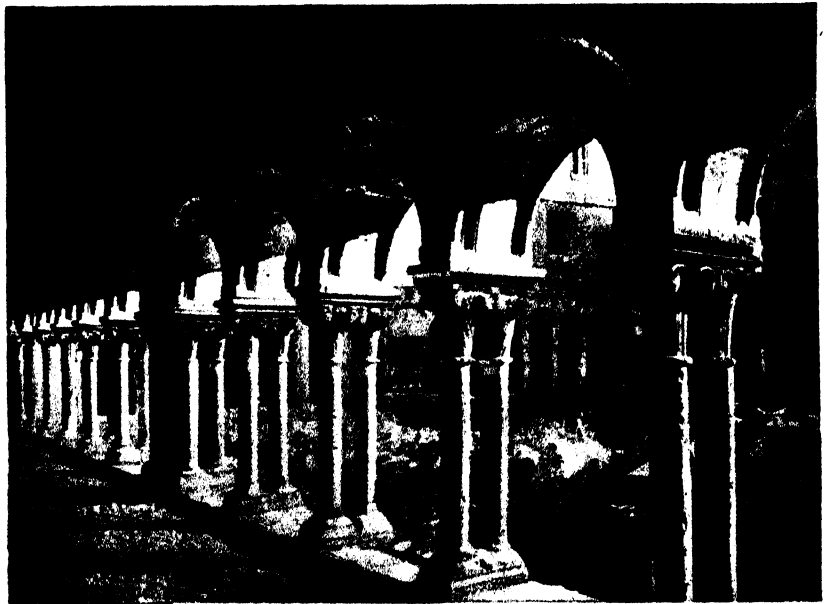
During the war the government had been hampered by its own troubles. The Liberal supporters of the queen-mother broke into two parties, the Moderates and the Progressives. As a sequel to a military rising at the palace of La Granja in 1836, the Progressive constitution of 1837 was forced on the queen-mother in place of the constitution of 1812. After the conclusion of the war another military rising drove the queen-mother out of the country, and her place as regent was taken by General Espartero, who held office from 1841-43. During this period mutinies and risings in the army were common. One of them, which had for its object the kidnapping of the young queen, was only frustrated through desperate fighting by the palace guard within the royal palace itself. Another rising in 1843 drove Espartero out of office, and led to the premature declaration of the queen's majority when she was only thirteen.

Isabella II. attempted to restore the despotic rule of her father Ferdinand, against the wishes of the majority of her own people for a constitutional government. The situation was complicated by the fatal system which now prevailed of interference in political affairs by military



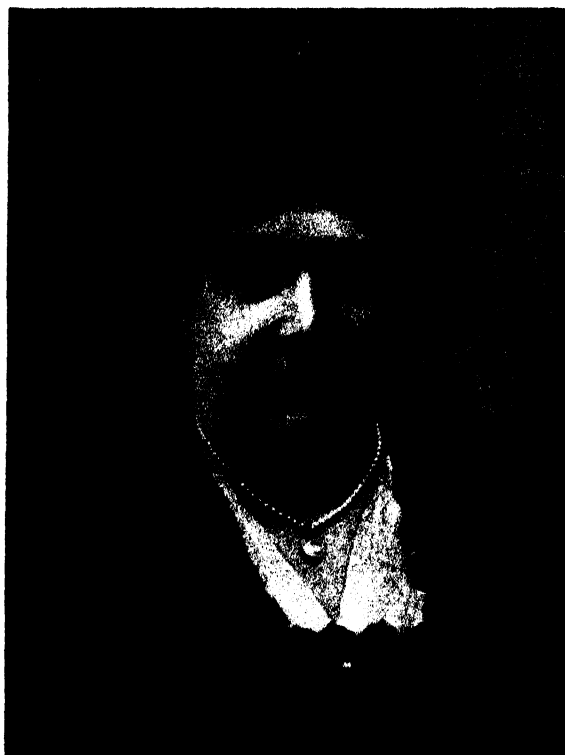
CHOIR STALLS, TOLEDO CATHEDRAL.

The cathedral of Toledo is the metropolitan church of Spain, and dates from the thirteenth century, though it was not actually completed until the close of the fifteenth. The carvings of these fine choir stalls represent the triumphs of Ferdinand and Isabella over the Moors.



THE CLOISTERS OF THE CONVENT OF LAS HUELGAS.

This convent was originally a palace of the kings of Castile. In 1187 it became a Cistercian convent, and the abbess was invested by Alphonso VIII. with high powers, which included the actual government of more than fifty villages.



QUEEN ISABELLA II.

Queen Isabella II. succeeded Ferdinand VII. in 1833, and her reign of thirty-five years was one of the stormiest periods of Spanish history. The outstanding events were the Carlist War, the "Spanish Marriage" of 1846, and the revolution of 1868 which drove her from the throne.

leaders, who had opportunities for acquiring prominence in suppressing numerous Carlist and other risings, or in waging profitless wars against Portugal, Italy, Morocco, Mexico, Chile and Peru, or in Cuba and Santo Domingo. It would be tedious to recount the constant revolts, mutinies and political changes, which for the most part centred round the fluctuating careers of generals like Espartero, Narvaez and O'Donnell, during this dismal period of almost uninterrupted anarchy. They brought the country to a state of revolution, which was hastened by the Queen's own loss of popularity. She had been inveigled into an unhappy marriage in the interests of the French royal family, though these were ruined by the French



ALPHONSO XII.

In 1874 the legitimate Spanish line was restored in the person of Alfonso XII. and within two years the Carlist War was ended and the pretender exiled. In foreign policy Alfonso cultivated a close relationship with Germany. He died in 1885.



Prince Amadeo of Aosta ascended the Spanish throne in 1870. For the three years of his reign, Republicans and Carlists intrigued against him, and he was glad to resign in 1873.

revolution of 1848. Isabella consoled herself in ways which recalled the scandalous court of her grandmother, and alienated the affection of her subjects. Towards the end of her reign a period of repression inaugurated under her chief minister Narvaez, whose severity may be judged from his death-bed remark that "he had no enemies, for he had shot them all," drove the chief Liberals, notably Generals Prim and Serrano, into exile. But after the death of Narvaez they soon returned to support a revolutionary movement begun by Admiral Topete, commander of the Atlantic squadron, at Cadiz, in 1868. The announcement of a new government founded on universal suffrage was welcomed in many districts,



"The Virgin of the Rosary," by Bartolome Esteban Murillo (1618-1682). One of the most celebrated Spanish painters, his pictures were nearly all religious in subject. On the death of Philip IV., Murillo was made Court painter by Charles II.

and when Serrano defeated and afterwards absorbed the lukewarm Royalist forces guarding the passage of the river Guadalquivir at the Bridge of Alcolea, Isabella's position in Spain was hopeless, and, desperate with grief, she fled to France.

The Queen's flight necessitated the formation of a new government, and republicanism being distasteful to the majority, after some deliberation the provisional parliament declared Spain to be a limited monarchy, with the real power vested in a senate and a popular chamber. It remained to find an occupant for the vacant throne, pending whose election Serrano acted as regent, with Prim as president of the ministry. The choice of a



"The Fruit-Seller," by Francisco Goya. He was born near Saragossa in 1746. His work covers a large variety of subjects, and many are from scenes of common life in Spain. His portrait of Charles IV. brought him the honour of Court painter.

sovereign presented great difficulty; incidentally the candidature of a prince of the house of Hohenzollern led to the Franco-German war. At length, after various rejections on the one side—including that of the youthful son of the late Queen Isabella—and refusals on the other, Amadeo of Aosta, the second son of Victor Emmanuel of Italy, was elected, thanks mainly to Prim, and accepted the crown. But just before Amadeo landed in Spain (December 30th, 1870), Prim was shot in his carriage as he was returning home at night from the House of Congress. Deprived of the support of the man to whom he owed his position, Amadeo did his best conscientiously to play the difficult part of a foreign king with a republican constitution; but the obstructions which he met with on every hand, to say nothing of an attempt to assassinate him in the streets of Madrid, caused him to seize an early opportunity of relinquishing his unenviable position. A disagreement



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"Jacob's Ladder," by Jusepe Ribera. He was born near Valencia in 1588. He settled at Naples and became a pupil of Caravaggio. His work is represented by portraits, mythological subjects, and by scenes of martyrdom. His paintings have a somewhat gloomy feeling and his style is in keeping with the scenes of horror which he delighted to paint.



[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.

"The Forge of Vulcan," by D. R. De Silva y Velazquez (1599-1660). A great number of pictures are attributed to him, and he is regarded as one of the very greatest painters. His wonderful technique and individuality are displayed in portraits, landscapes and genre subjects. He painted many portraits of Philip IV., and became Court painter about 1623.



THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

General Gomez was one of the most successful leaders of the Cuban insurgents, and took a prominent part in the successive Cuban rebellions against Spain between 1868 and 1898. The illustration shows some of his cavalry.



Photos by]

THE WRECK OF THE "MAINE."

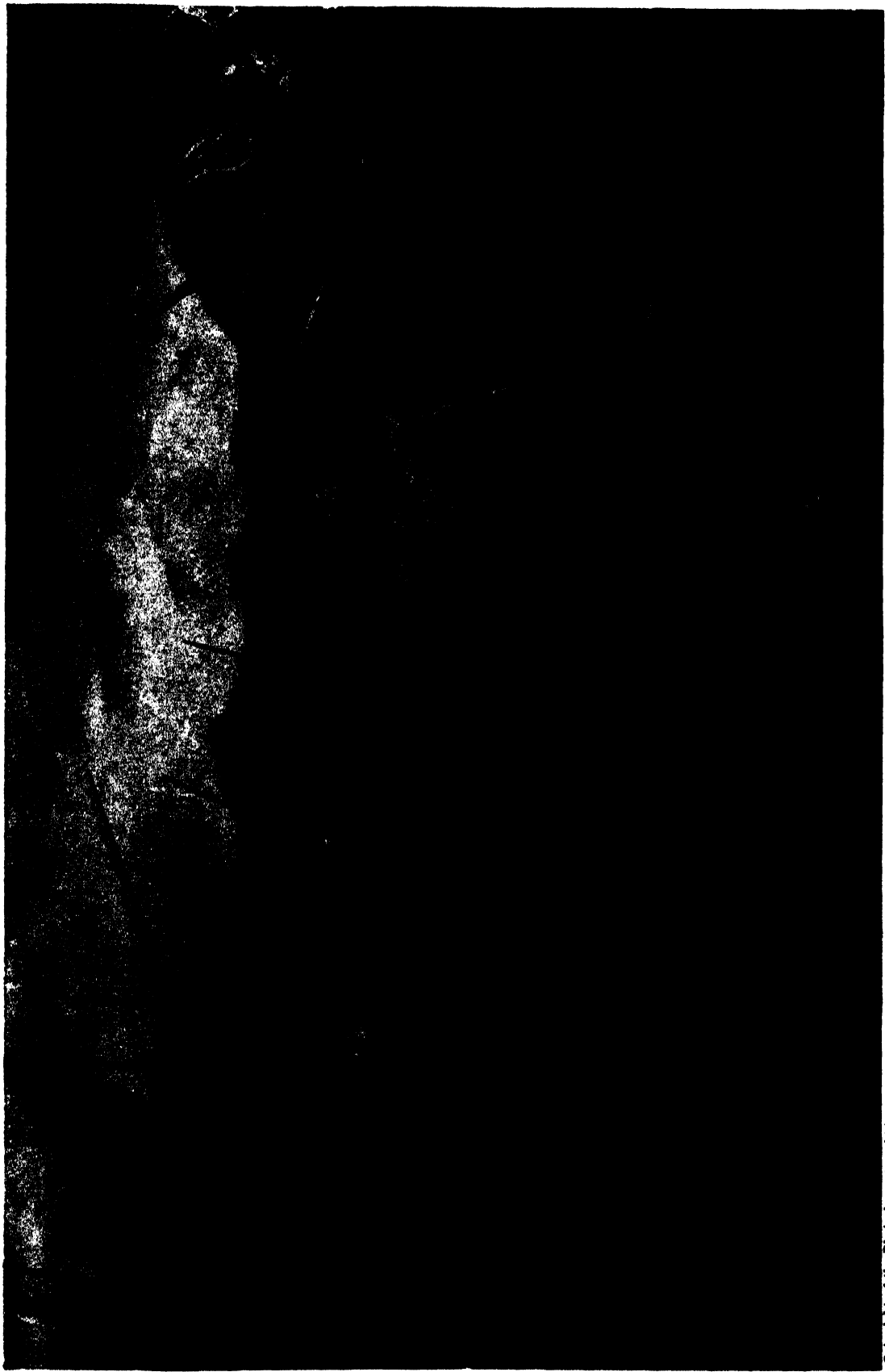
[Underwood &amp; Underwood.

Spanish misgovernment in Cuba caused strong agitation in the United States, and the Spanish-American War of 1898 was hastened by the sinking of the United States cruiser "Maine" in Havana harbour. At the time the incident was attributed to the Spanish.

over a point of minor importance gave him an excuse, and he resigned early in 1873, after a reign of little more than two years.

The departure of Amadeo from Spain was followed by the setting up of a republic, by anarchy in the provinces, and by a renewed Carlist war in the north. In less than a year the failure of the republican government led to another military interference, when Pavia, the Captain-General of New Castile, sent his soldiers to the House of Congress and turned the deputies into the street. This isolated incident, however, had little effect, nor did the continuance of the republican government, although repressive, restore order to the country or subdue the Carlists. It soon became clear that the only hope for the country lay in the restoration of the monarchy, and at the end of 1874 Martinez Campos, a general in the central army operating against the Carlists, suddenly proclaimed Isabella's son, lately come of age, as Alphonso XII., near the ancient Saguntum. The support of the whole central army, followed by that of the troops at Madrid and of the northern army, ensured the success of this movement, which brought the short-lived republic to an end.

Alphonso, who had received a military education at Sandhurst, came to Madrid in 1875. His first task was to end the Carlist war, which was accomplished in 1876, while two years later a long-standing revolt in Cuba was temporarily suppressed by Martinez Campos. At the beginning of 1878 the King married his cousin; but she died within a few months, and next year he married the Austrian Archduchess Maria Christina. With peace established, a moderate government, and a popular king, Spain looked

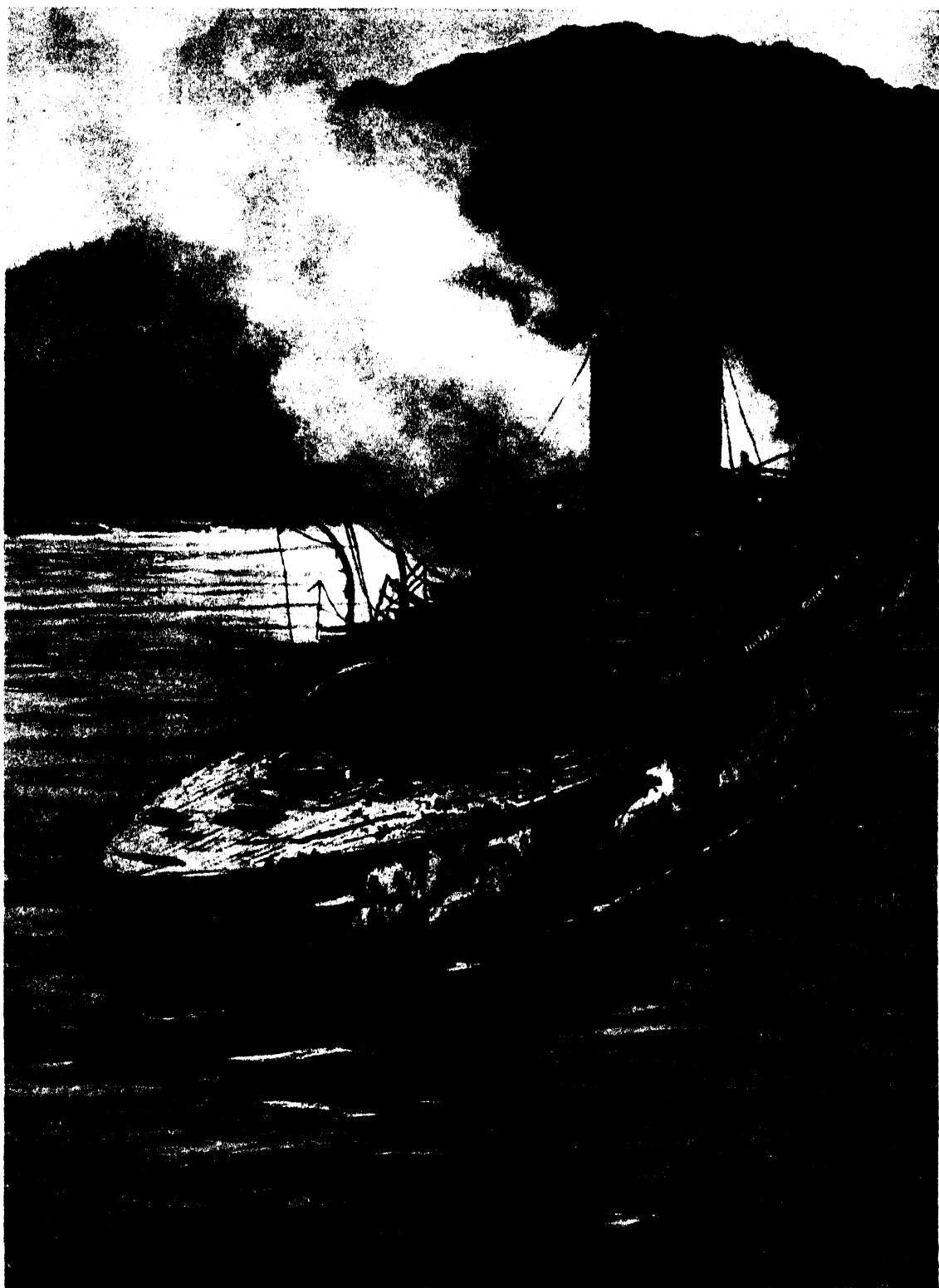


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#### THE BATTLE OF SEMPACH, 1386.

In 1385 Duke Leopold of Austria took advantage of discord between the cities forming the south German confederation to refuse the request of the citizens of Lucerne for abolition of the payment of customs to an Austrian bailiff. The citizens refused to continue to pay toll, and granted rights of citizenship to the neighbouring people of Sempach, who were discontented with Austrian rule. Duke Leopold thereupon gathered together his vassals to march against Lucerne. They were met on the hillside outside Sempach, and in the battle the Austrians were defeated and Duke Leopold was killed.





**THE SPANISH BATTLESHIP "OQUENDO" AFTER THE NAVAL ENGAGEMENT AT MANILA BAY, 1898.**

The United States of America warmly espoused the cause of the Cuban insurgents, and in 1898 war was declared by Spain. From the start the Spanish naval, military and financial resources were outmatched. On May 1st, 1898, the Spanish fleet was destroyed in Manila Bay by an American squadron under Admiral Dewey.





ALPHONSO XIII.

Alphonso XIII., the posthumous son of Alphonso XII., was born in 1886, assumed control of affairs at the age of sixteen, and married Princess Victoria in May, 1906. His heir was born in 1907.

ade of Cuba, was cornered in the harbour of Santiago de Cuba by Admirals Samson and Sebley. Driven out by the American bombardment on the land side, all the Spanish ships were sunk, driven ashore, burned or captured in a naval engagement in which the Americans lost only one man. Peace was signed within six months of the outbreak of the war, and when Alphonso came of age in 1902, the Queen-Regent handed over to him a kingdom diminished by all its possessions in the Far East and West. The loss was more obvious than real, for the maintenance of the Spanish hold on Cuba at least had meant a constant drain in men and money.

Under Alphonso XIII., except for a Moroccan war, Spain has been able to concentrate all her resources on her internal organization and development, with bright hopes for the future. The throne, too, was consolidated by the King's marriage in 1906 with the English Princess Ena of Battenberg, an event which was marred by a dastardly bomb outrage directed against the bridal pair as they were returning from the church to the palace along the Calle Mayor. But this and other attempts against the King's life, as well as the actual assassination of the Premier Canalejas in 1912, are irresponsible outbursts rather than manifestations of organized discontent against a government which shares in the general improvement of the governed country.

forward to regaining something of her lost prosperity. The King's popularity had waned before he died, late in 1885, at the early age of twenty-eight. He had two daughters by his second wife, Maria Christina, who survived him and gave birth to a son, the present King Alphonso XIII., in May, 1886. Maria Christina acted as regent till the King should come of age, and her regency is remarkable for a wise and tolerant government which, after the previous turbulent years, kept the nation in its allegiance to her youthful son. It was, however, during her regency that Spain lost her remaining possessions in America and the Far East. Spanish misgovernment in Cuba brought threats of intervention from the United States, and the two countries were rapidly drifting into war towards the end of the century. War was precipitated by the sinking of the United States cruiser *Maine* in Havana harbour in 1898, by a Spanish mine as the Americans alleged. The brief war, which was mainly naval, is within recent memory. It is only necessary to recall the main incidents. Admiral Dewey, with a loss of only seven men, destroyed

Admiral Montojo's Pacific squadron in Manila Bay in May, 1898. Admiral Cervera, with the Spanish Atlantic squadron, sailing to raise the American block-



PRINCESS VICTORIA.

Princess Victoria of Battenberg is the niece of the late King Edward VII. On returning from her wedding a bomb was thrown which killed and wounded many spectators, the King and Queen narrowly escaping injury.

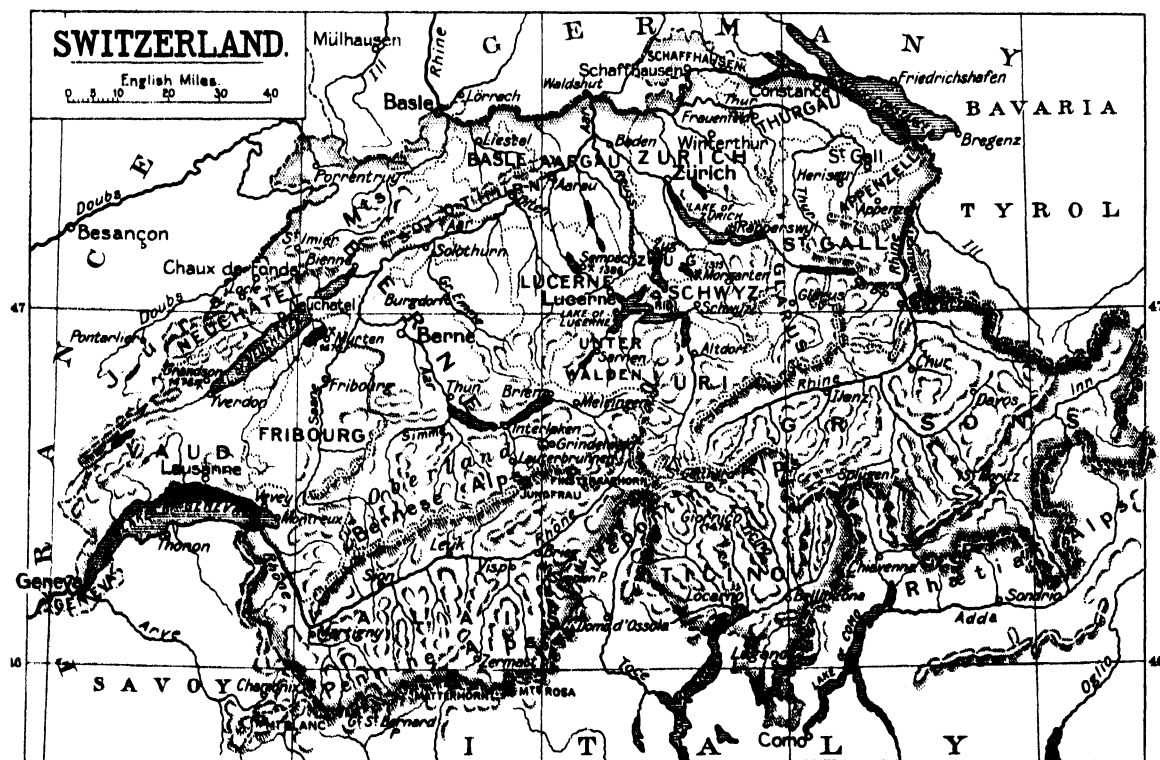
# DATES OF SWISS HISTORY

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
I. The Origins of the Swiss Confederation up to 1315.	A.D.	
	1218	Extinction of the House of the Dukes of Züringen. Soon after the Habsburgs obtain their rights over Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden by different titles.
	1231	Uri made immediately dependent on the Empire.
	1240	Similar grant for Schwyz.
	1245-7	First risings in Schwyz and Unterwalden against the Habsburgs.
	1273	Rudolf of Habsburg elected Emperor.
	1282	The Habsburgs invested with the Duchy of Austria.
	1291	April 16th. Rudolf purchases from the Abbey of Murbach (in Alsace) all its rights in Lucerne, Schwyz and Unterwalden. July 15th. Death of Rudolf of Habsburg. August 1st. First Everlasting League of Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden.
	1297	The Emperor Adolf of Nassau confirms the liberties of Uri and Schwyz.
	1298	Albert of Habsburg elected Emperor.
	1307	November 8th. Legendary date of the first meeting at the Rütli.
	1308	January 1st. Legendary date of the Rising of the Swiss against the Habsburgs. May 1st. Murder of the Emperor Albert of Habsburg.
	1309	The Emperor Henry VII. of Luxemburg confirms the liberties of Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden.
	1315	November 15th. The Swiss defeat the Habsburgs at Morgarten. December 9th. Renewal of the Everlasting League of 1291.
II. Growth and Expansion of the Confederation, 1315-1400.	1332	Lucerne enters the Confederation.
	1339	Bern defeats the Burgundian nobles at Laupen.
	1351	Zürich enters the Confederation.
	1352	Glarus and Zug enter the Confederation.
	1353	Bern enters the Confederation. The Eight Cantons now complete.
	1375	The "English War."
	1386	July 9th. The Swiss defeat the Austrians at Sempach.
	1388	April 9th. The Swiss defeat the Austrians at Näfels.
	1394	Peace made between the Swiss and the Austrians.
III. Enlargement and Extension of the Confederation (1400-1516), which finally becomes a European Power.	1403	First conquest of the Val Leventina.
	1405	The men of Appenzell defeat the Abbot of St. Gall at the Stoss Pass.
	1415	Conquest of the Aargau by the Swiss.
	1422	The Milanese defeat the Swiss at Arbedo.
	1436-1450	First Civil War among the Confederates.
	1444	The Swiss defeat the French Armagnacs at St. Jakob on the Birs.
	1452	The First Alliance of the Swiss with France.
	1460	Conquest of the Thurgau by the Swiss.
	1474	The Everlasting Peace between the Swiss and the Habsburgs.
	1476	March 2nd. The Swiss defeat Charles the Bold at Grandson. June 22nd. The Swiss again defeat Charles the Bold at Morat.
	1478	The Swiss defeat the Milanese at Giornico.
	1481	Fribourg and Soleure admitted into the Confederation.
	1499	May 22nd. The Swiss defeat the Austrians at the Calven Gorge. June 22nd. Peace of Basel, by which the Confederation becomes practically independent of the Empire.
	1500	Bellinzona, the Riviera, and the Val Blenio won from the Milanese by the Swiss.
	1501	Basel and Schaffhausen admitted into the Confederation.
	1512	The Swiss conquer Lugano, Locarno, Mendrisio, and the Va' Maggia from the Milanese.
	1513	The Swiss defeat the French at Novara. Admittance of Appenzell into the Confederation, now numbering thirteen members.
	1515	September 13th. The Swiss power in the Duchy of Milan destroyed at Marignano.
	1516	The Everlasting Peace with France.
IV. The Religious Reformation, and the formal independence of the Confederation recognized by the Empire, 1519-1648.	1519	Ulrich Zwingli first preaches Protestant doctrines in Zürich.
	1523	Protestantism adopted by Zürich.
	1528	Protestantism adopted by Bern.
	1529	April. Protestantism adopted by Basel. June. First Peace of Kappel.
	1531	October 11th. Defeat of the Protestants at Kappel, and death of Zwingli. November. Second Peace of Kappel.
	1536	Bern seizes Vaud and the bishopric of Lausanne.
	1564	Peace of Lausanne between Bern and Savoy.
	1570	St. Charles Borromeo promotes the Roman Catholic cause in the Confederation.
	1586	The Golden or Borromean League.
	1597	The Canton of Appenzell splits into two parts.
	1620-1639	Troubles in the Valtellina.
	1648	October 24th. The Treaties of Westphalia formally declare that the Confederation is independent of the Empire.
V. Religious and Political Troubles, 1648-1798.	1653	The Great Peasant Revolt.
	1656	The First Villmergen War.
	1712	The Second Villmergen War.
	1762	Foundation of the "Helvetic Society."
VI. The Helvetic Republic and the Act of Mediation, 1798-1814.	1798	April 12th. Foundation of the Helvetic Republic.
	1803	February 19th. Napoleon's Act of Mediation.
VII. The Federal Constitutions of 1815, 1848 and 1874.	1815	August 7th. Acceptance of the new Federal Constitution. November 20th. Acknowledgment and guarantee of Swiss neutrality by the Congress of Vienna.
	1833	The Canton of Basel split into two halves.
	1843	Foundation of the Roman Catholic "Sonderbund."
	1847	The "Sonderbund" War.
	1848	September 12th. The new Federal Constitution.
	1857	The Settlement of the status of Neuchâtel.
	1874	April 19th. The revised Federal Constitution.
	1887	Federal alcohol monopoly.
	1891	Introduction of the "Initiative" for partial revisions of the Federal Constitution.
	1898-1909	State nationalization of railways.
	1900	Insurance against sickness and accidents accepted.
	1903	Protectionist customs tariff.
	1905	Federal State Bank created.
	1908	Manufacture of absinthe prohibited. Federal control of water supply.
	1912	Federal Civil Code came into force.
	1914	Creation of a Federal Administrative Tribunal.

## CHAPTER XXII

*THE SWISS.* By W. A. B. COOLIDGE, M.A. (Oxon.), Hon. Ph.D. (Bern)

THE Swiss people, the land which they inhabit, and the political Confederation which embraces both, are one of the standing wonders of Europe. In each case an artificial unity has become a real union. In the true sense, there is no such thing as a "Swiss nation or people." There is no "Swiss language," save in the excited imagination of certain ill-informed tourists, while three national tongues (German, French and Italian) are officially recognized by the Swiss Constitution, a fourth (Romansch, a younger sister of the other Romance tongues) lingering on only in some of the mountain valleys of the Grisons, at the sources of the Middle Rhine, and at those of the Inn (in the Engadine). Nor are the Swiss a homogeneous nation from the point of view of blood or race—Alamanni, Burgundians, Savoyards, Italians, and Raetians all form component parts of this artificial "nation." Yet everyone knows very well that there is a real "Swiss nation," despite these many drawbacks and complications. So again there is no such thing as a "Swiss land," and yet there is a very real and well-known "Switzerland," forming a buffer state in Central Europe. If we look a little more closely into matters, we shall find that "Switzerland" is an accidental combination of bits of Burgundy, Savoy, Swabia, Lombardy, and Raetia—bits only, not the whole of any of these regions. Modern "Switzerland" has no "natural frontiers." To the north the whole of the Canton of Schaffhausen and a part of Basel lie north of the Rhine, while to the west the Porrentruy region is on the western, or "French" slope of the Jura; to the south, bits of the Valais (the village of Simplon) and of the Grisons (the valleys of Mesocco, of Bregaglia, and of Poschiavo), not to speak of the whole of the Canton of Tessin, are across the great chain of the Alps;



MAP OF SWITZERLAND.

The Swiss nation offers an instance of an unique historical freak. Every Swiss is first and foremost a Swiss, yet he may be French in blood and language like the citizens of Geneva, German in blood and language like the citizens of Lucerne, or Italian in blood and language like the citizens of Bellinzona.



THE HOSPICE OF GRAND ST. BERNHARD.

This hospice has been in existence for more than eight hundred years as a shelter for travellers. It was founded by Bernard de Menthon, a Swiss nobleman, as a refuge for pilgrims journeying to Rome. It is kept by Augustinian monks, who are assisted in the work of rescuing travellers by Newfoundland dogs.

while to the east the upper valley of the Inn (or the Engadine) is geographically part of the Tyrol, and the valley of Münster is on the non-Swiss side of the great Alpine chain. Thus, as the sources of the Rhine, of the Rhone, of the Inn, and of the Tessin are all in "Switzerland," waters flow from Swiss territory down to the North Sea, to the Mediterranean, to the Black Sea, and to the Adriatic, and yet "Switzerland" in its entirety is by no means a mountain land. Nor is this all, for several towns or rulers which once were more or less linked with the Swiss Confederation have long ceased to have any political connection with it—so the town of Mühlhausen (now in Alsace), that of Rottweil (now in Würtemberg), the Bishop of Constance (Constance is now in Baden), and North Savoy (now French).

As the "Swiss nation" is an artificial creation, as well as the land of the Swiss, where are we to seek the golden link which binds them together, and has turned the one into a real "nation" and the other into a real "land"? The connecting link is the League or Confederation which unites both the Swiss people and the Swiss land, as they stand to-day, in a single political state. This League gathered in many bits of divers nations and divers lands, and welded them into a real and enduring whole. Yet it is simply the one survival of many similar Leagues that formerly existed in Europe. It owes its survival, amid the ruins of the old political world, to the fact that it has been brought up to date and consolidated, partly by the natural clinging together of various tribes and regions for defence against a common enemy; but also largely because it is ruled by the one Constitution in Europe according to which the people are the sovereign, not only indirectly through an elected Parliament, but also by the right of direct decisions made by a vote of the people. Hence, as both the "Swiss nation" and the "Swiss land" ultimately owe their existence to this League or Confederation, which forms their common political

centre, the history of both "nation" and "land" is simply the history of this League or Confederation. If we tried to tell the story either from the ethnological or the territorial point of view, we would have to deal with fragments of nations and bits of territories, and the web, already entangled enough, would become quite inextricable. But to help our readers we propose, as each new member of the Confederation enters the League, to say a few words as to its previous local and individual history.

History alone can explain why there is a "Swiss nation," why there is a "Switzerland," and why there is a "Swiss Confederation," binding both people and land into a well-knit whole, which, though artificial in its origins, is nowadays an integral and acknowledged part of the political system of Europe.

(that of the Aa), and Lucerne on the Reuss itself as it issues from the Lake. These Four Valleys form the cradle of Swiss liberty and of the Swiss Confederation. But their history, previous to their first League, is very different. Uri belonged since 853, by the gift of Louis the German, to the nuns



"IT IS I, MR. BAILIFF."

Gessler's party was thrown into confusion when Tell sprang ashore and disappeared in the woods, but a search was immediately organized. In the course of this man-hunt Gessler became separated from his men and found himself in a narrow defile. To his amazement, Tell suddenly stepped forward.

#### I.—*The Origins of the Swiss Confederation up to 1315.*

In the very heart of Switzerland lies the irregularly-shaped Lake of Lucerne, sometimes erroneously named "Lake of the Four Forest Cantons" (for the German word *wald*, meaning "forest," has been mistaken for the Latin word *vallis*, meaning "valley"). Through it flows the river Reuss, descending from the St. Gotthard Pass past Uri, and issuing at the other end of the Lake at the picturesque town of Lucerne. Into this Lake rush the waters coming from the Four Valleys around it—Uri (a bit of that of the Reuss), Schwyz (that of the Muotta), Unterwalden



Photo by]

#### TELL RESCUES BAUMGARTEN.

Tell is credited with all manner of wonderful exploits, including a heroic rescue of the patriot Baumgarten, and is said to have taken an active share in the Swiss victory at Morgarten in 1315. In the seventeenth century, however, doubts began to be thrown on the whole story, and in the next several eminent Swiss and German professors proved conclusively to their own satisfaction that the legend has no foundation in fact.

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## THE MURDER OF GESSLER BY TELL.

[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.

Alone in the presence of his bitterest foe, Tell resolved to rid himself of his enemy and his country of a remorseless tyrant at one blow, and with unerring aim he shot Gessler through the heart. The bailiff's death was the signal for a general rising in the Forest Cantons against the rule of Austria.

of Zürich (the "Fraumünster"); but for long included only the region near and around Altdorf, for the upper bit of the Reuss valley (the glen of Ursern or Andermatt) was originally colonized from the Benedictine Irish monastery of Disentis, across the Oberalp Pass, did not make an alliance with Uri till 1410, and was only merged in it as late as 1888. On the other hand, in Schwyz there was a free peasant community, self-governing and practically independent. But in Unterwalden (the two bits of which—Obwalden, or Sarnen, and Nidwalden, or Stans and Engelberg—are separated by the Kern forest or *wald*) the soil and the jurisdiction were divided among many owners, ecclesiastical and lay, so that there was no single community or common centre of action, as in the two other cases; hence its progress towards freedom (which in those days meant direct dependence on the German King-Emperor) was comparatively slow.

All three districts had been ruled by delegates of the Dukes of Zäringen, who were both Counts of the Zürichgau, and "protectors" of the nuns of Zürich. But on the extinction of this great house in 1218 its powers gradually passed into the hands of the Habsburgs, a dynasty which had its origin in South Alsace, but had little by little acquired many rights and manors situated more to the south, especially in the middle valley of the Aar (the Castle of Habsburg is still in the Canton of Aargau). Hence, in 1231 Uri, and in 1240 Schwyz, obtained from the Emperor grants of immediate dependence on the Empire—that is, practical freedom. But the power of the Habsburgs was always growing, so that in 1245-7 three of our Four Lands—Schwyz, Unterwalden and Lucerne—made their first rising against the Habsburg supremacy, though these events are very obscure. It will be noted that Schwyz already took the lead, and so, later on, deservedly gave its name (spelt "Schweiz") to the territory of the whole

future Confederation. But the election of the head of the Habsburgs to the Empire (1273, shortly before his house had got definite hold of the Duchy of Austria in 1282), and especially his purchase, early in 1291, of all the rights of the Abbey of Murbach (in Alsace) over Lucerne, Schwyz and Unterwalden (Uri here, as before, was not directly concerned, owing to its privileged position) greatly alarmed our Three Lands. The death of Rudolf of Habsburg soon after relieved their anxieties for a moment, and so they took advantage of this vacancy of the Imperial throne to conclude their first Everlasting League, August 1st, 1291, the germ of the future Swiss Confederation, which still keeps its birthday annually on August 1st. Obwalden does not seem to have joined the others at first, but its name has been roughly inserted later on the seal of Nidwalden, while the pride of place is taken by Schwyz. This document, written in Latin, follows the common formula of leagues of this kind current at that time. Its importance is that this particular league survived all its fellows, and still exists to-day, so that its claim to be "Everlasting" is much better justified than was usually the case. In form, it is a renewal of an older alliance (probably made in 1245-7), which is otherwise unknown to us. In substance, the Three Lands concluded a political alliance against outside enemies (meaning clearly the Habsburgs), who might oppress its several members, yet they deny neither their immediate dependence on the Empire, nor refuse to render the services due to the local lords of the manor. It is thus a conservative document, aiming at maintaining the charter-guarded privileges of the Three Lands as against Habsburg oppression. It appealed to the King-Emperor as against the Habsburg Counts of the Zürichgau. Hence, in 1297 the Emperor Adolf of Nassau confirmed the charters of Uri and Schwyz, as in 1309 did the Emperor Henry VII. of Luxemburg,



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## TELL'S SHOT AT THE APPLE.

According to the legend William Tell incurred the wrath of Gessler, the Austrian bailiff, by refusing to salute the ducal hat placed on a pole in the town of Altdorf. Gessler threatened him with death unless he could shoot an apple placed on his son's head. Tell accomplished the feat and thenceforward devoted himself to vengeance.



for all the Three Lands, Unterwalden being now placed on the same privileged footing as its neighbours. Between these two reigns comes that of the Emperor Albert of Habsburg, who, despite legends, does not seem to have tried to infringe the liberties of our Three Lands. But there always existed the fear of something of the kind, and, naturally, the Habsburgs did not like to see their rights diminished by the action of the Emperor. On the death of the Emperor Henry VII., the Empire was disputed by two candidates, a Habsburg and a non-Habsburg. The Habsburg revoked the charters granted to our Three Lands, and seized on the pretext that the men of Schwyz had wantonly attacked pasture rights of the great monastery of Einsiedeln. Our Three Lands naturally took the side of the non-Habsburg candidate, and prepared to meet the Habsburg army which had assembled at the Habsburg town of Zug. The



Photo by]

## TELL'S LEAP.

[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.

When Tell had successfully cleft the apple on his son's head, Gessler noticed he had another arrow and asked Tell its purpose. "For you if I had slain my child," replied Tell. Gessler had him seized at once and carried across the lake to Küssnacht, but a storm arose and as they neared the shore Tell leaped to a rocky ledge and disappeared.

Habsburg soldiers pushed over the hills to the Lake of Aegeri. But on its shores they met with a much smaller "Swiss" army, which had descended from Schwyz through a mountain gorge to that lake. And there, at Morgarten, the infant Confederation received its baptism of blood, and won a glorious victory (November 15th, 1315) over the flower of Austrian knighthood. The League of 1291 was thus cemented by blood, and three weeks later (December 9th) that League was solemnly renewed at Brunnen, on the shore of the Lake of Lucerne. This document is written in German, and is largely an expansion of the earlier alliance; but it was agreed that no member should recognize a new lord without the consent of the rest, and, likewise, that no separate negotiations were to be made by any one member alone. The Emperor Louis of Bavaria confirmed (1316) this new League, with which in 1318 the Habsburgs made a truce, recognizing the manorial, but not the political, rights of the Habsburgs in "Swiss" territory; for the King-Emperor alone was acknowledged as the one power supreme over the League.



*Painted specially for this work*

#### THE BATTLE OF MORGARTEN, 1315.

*[By J. H. Valda.*

About 1291 the cantons of Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden, linked round Lake Lucerne, formed a League to oppose the tyrannies of the Austrian governors. The desire for complete independence arose early in the fourteenth century, and a rising occurred which Duke Leopold of Austria decided to suppress in person. In 1315 he led an army into the defile of Morgarten, but the Swiss, collected on the heights above, hurled down stones and trunks of trees and put the Austrian forces to disorderly flight.



[Photo by]

## THE OATH OF RÜTLI.

[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.]

Tell called round him some of his friends and associates, and a League was formed to slay Gessler and liberate the Forest Cantons from the dominion of Austria. On the 7th of November, 1307, Tell, Stauffacher, Furst and Melchthal met together on the Rütli meadow and took a solemn vow to expel the tyrants.

Such is the authentic and historical narrative of the origins of the Swiss Confederation. But already in the fifteenth century legend enshrouded the facts in a picturesque mist. In the Uri version it is William Tell, the hero of Altdorf, who plays the chief rôle, though in the other version Schwyz takes the lead in resisting the horrible conduct of the Habsburg bailiffs. Both stories are combined about 1470 in a still extant MS., known from its binding as "The White Book of Sarnen," wherein we first hear of Gessler and of the meeting at the Rütli, the legend of Tell's shooting at Gessler being but one incident in the struggle resolved on at that meeting. The names of real persons and places are mixed up with those of purely legendary persons (such as Tell; his name arising from altered entries in the registers of Attinghausen, opposite Altdorf), while the events narrated and the chronology given cannot be made to fit into the known political relations of any period. The legend grew apace, receiving many additions at the hand of the Glarus chronicler, Giles Tschudi (1505-1572), who invented numerous details, in particular, the two legendary dates, November 8th, 1307, and January 1st, 1308, as those of the Rütli meeting and of the rising against the Habsburgs. Further embellishments were made (1786) by the Swiss historian Johannes von Müller (1752-1809), and the final touches were added by the poet Schiller in his play of *William Tell* (1804), so that the story came to be a splendid piece of imagination and less than ever a tale of real events. It is the merit of a long series of conscientious Swiss investigators that the whole growth of the legend has been traced out, though the common people, even in the French-speaking and Italian-speaking districts of modern Switzerland, still cling to Tell as the embodiment of the national struggle for freedom. It is now believed that the entire Tell legend is simply the North of England story of William of Cloudesley—which thus became better known in its new home than in its original dwelling by the shores of the North Sea.

## II. *Growth and expansion of the Confederation, 1315-1400.*

The surprising victory of Morgarten drew the attention of its neighbours to this brave but hitherto insignificant League, and consequently they made haste to join it. First in order of time came Lucerne (1332), the nearest neighbour of the Three Lands, and a town which had grown up around the church of St. Leger or Leodegar (whence its name), under the protection of the Abbey of Murbach (in Alsace). Far more important was the accession of Zürich (1351), a town of Roman origin, and an Imperial Free City since the extinction of the house of Zähringen (1218). The help of this powerful town greatly increased the strength of the infant Confederation, and raised it from being a merely rural League. This new characteristic was further stamped upon it by the admission of Bern (1353), a town founded by the Zähringen dynasty in 1191, an Imperial Free City since its extinction (1218), and the victor over the neighbouring Burgundian nobles at the fight of Laupen (1339). This addition marked an advance of the Confederation towards the west, or French-speaking Savoy, while it completed the number of Eight Cantons, which was to remain unchanged for some one hundred and thirty years. Midway in point of date between these two great towns the smaller towns of Glarus and Zug both entered the Everlasting League in 1352. The former belonged to the nunnery of Säckingen, on the Rhine, of which the "protectors" were the Habsburgs, while Zug was an outpost of the Habsburg domains. Both were soon lost to the Confederation, but Zug was regained in 1364, though Glarus had to wait till the victory of Näfels (1388). But the entrance of these five new members brought complications with it, for though each was allied to the original Three Lands, the new members were not directly allied to each other. Thus the simplicity of the original League gave way to a more intricate system, which in course of time was to become even more complicated; and yet, like a delicate machine, it worked well in practice.



*Photo by]*

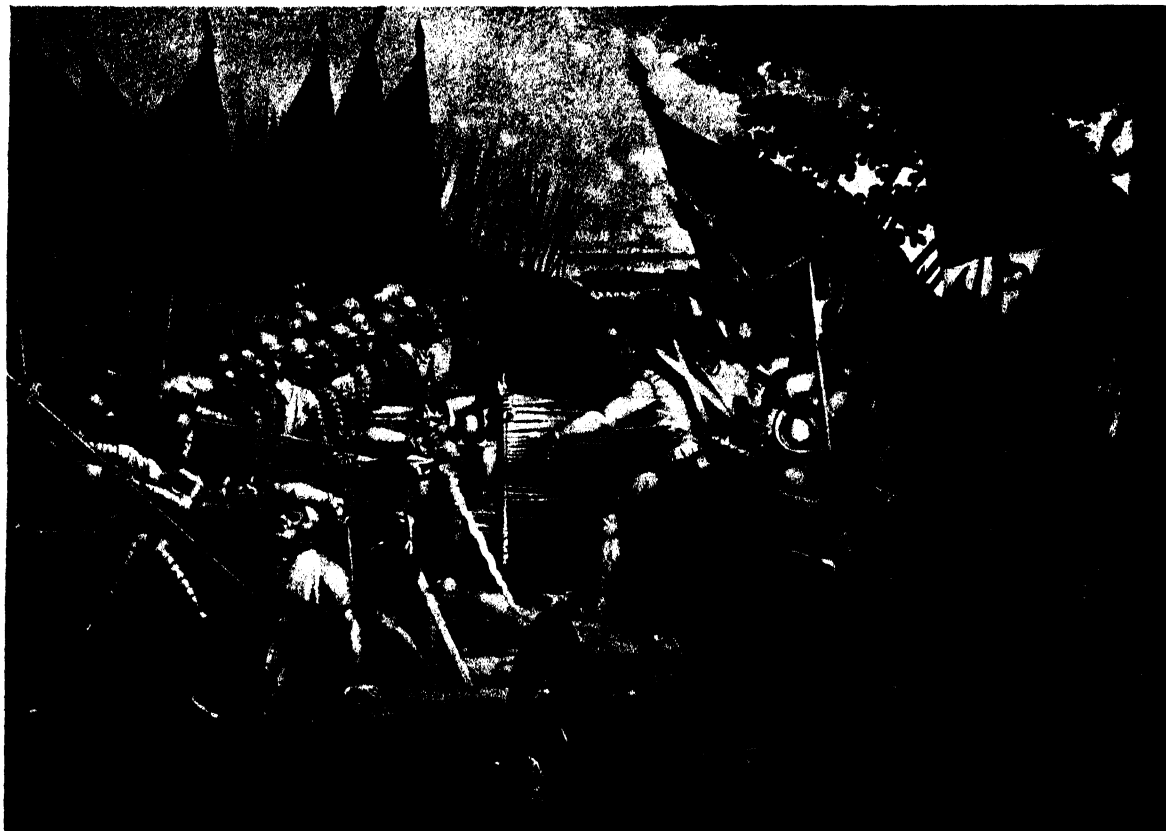
*[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.*

### TELL'S CHAPEL, LAKE OF LUCERNE.

This chapel, which was rebuilt in 1880, is supposed to mark the spot where Tell sprang out of Gessler's boat. The original chapel may have been erected in the fourteenth century, some say by the canton of Uri itself, to commemorate the famous deed of the patriot. The Swiss still celebrate a special annual service in this chapel.

But it must be borne in mind that there was as yet no central executive, while the "Diet" was an assembly of envoys from sovereign states, and in no sense a meeting of elected representatives, like a modern parliament. Yet attempts were twice made to obtain a binding agreement among the members of the League, even though for strictly specified objects. In 1370 the "Parsons' Ordinance" laid down that no foreign jurisdiction should be appealed to by the members, who by the "Sempach Ordinance" of 1393 bound themselves to observe certain regulations meant to modify the rigours of warfare—a sort of early shadow of the future "Geneva Convention" as between the States of the world in general.

A word must here be said about a curious little foray, called the "English War," or that of the "Guglers" (a name taken from the pointed shape of the helmets worn), in 1375 in "Swiss" territory.



DEATH OF ARNOLD WINKELRIED AT SEMPACH. 1386.

The great victory of the Swiss over the Austrian Archduke at the battle of Sempach on the 9th of July, 1386, is an indubitable historical fact, but the incident depicted here is said by many to be purely legendary. According to the story, Arnold Winkelried threw himself against the Austrian pikes, grasping as many as he could, while his men rushed over his body into the breach he had made.

A French knight, Enguerrand, Sire de Coucy, who was Earl of Bedford in England (in consequence of his marriage with Isabella, daughter of Edward III.), and a grandson of Leopold of Habsburg (the defeated of Morgarten), collected an army of mercenaries in order to enforce his claims to the dowry of his mother, which consisted of certain Habsburg lands. His mixed force (by no means wholly English) was put to rout by the inhabitants. A memorial of this defeat is a mound, called the "English Barrow," which is still shown at Buttisholz, some miles south-west of the town of Sempach, this mound being said to have been raised above the bones of many of the three thousand freebooters who were here put to death by the sturdy peasants.

Meanwhile the Habsburgs had by no means given up worrying and annoying the Confederation in various ways. War therefore again broke out, but was soon brought to a close by another great victory of the Confederation over Austrian forces, which took place near the town of Sempach on July 9th, 1386,



*Painted specially for this work*

#### REVOLT OF THE PEOPLE OF APPENZELL AND ST. GALL.

In the seventeenth century an Irish priest gave his name to what is now the town and canton of St. Gall. In the course of six centuries a famous Benedictine monastery was established, and by the fourteenth century the abbot had become a prince of the Empire and ruler over the district. The people of Appenzell and St. Gall frequently revolted against the abbots, and after a long and bitter conflict won their independence. In the middle of the fifteenth century the town of St. Gall joined the Swiss Confederation

*[By J. H. Valde.]*



Painted specially for this work]

[By J. H. Valda.

#### THE DEATH OF STUSSI, BURGOMASTER OF ZÜRICH, IN BATTLE, 1443.

From early times the city of Zürich was powerful and independent, at one time directing its energies towards expelling the Austrians, at another making conquests at the expense of its Swiss neighbours. In 1436 a civil war broke out in the Swiss Confederation. At the combat of St. Jacob on the Sihl in 1443 the men of Zürich were routed and burgomaster Stüssi was killed.

Leopold, the then head of the Habsburgs (outside Austria), being himself slain with many of his knights. Glarus at once rose in order to regain its freedom, and this was finally secured by yet another great victory won by a few men of Glarus and Schwyz, the scene of which was Näfels (April 9th, 1388), not far from Glarus itself. These two great achievements completed the work begun at Morgarten, and finally broke the political power of the Habsburgs within the Confederation. A short truce of 1389 was extended and confirmed by a longer one in 1394, in which Habsburg political rights within the territory of the Confederation were renounced, in part expressly, in part tacitly. The Confederation now became popularly known as "Switzerland," an expression originally given to the Three Lands, but extended by 1352 to the whole Confederation, particularly after the victory of Sempach, though not officially used till 1803. The Confederation was long known as "The Old League of Upper Germany." This name emphasizes two of its chief features—it still formed part of the German Kingdom-Empire, and it was exclusively composed of German-speaking districts.

#### III. *Enlargement and Extension of the Confederation (1400–1516), which finally becomes a European Power.*

This period of rather over a hundred years is most important in the history of our Confederation, which near its close reaches the highest point of its political power. It seems best, therefore, to group together the main events which occurred, without trying to follow a strict chronological order.

In this period the actual number of full members was increased to thirteen. First came the admission in 1481 of the towns of Fribourg and of Soleure, the former founded by the Zähringen in 1178, the latter of Roman origin, but both faithful allies of Bern, for which they had done much in the Burgundian war (1475–6); next, after the great events of 1499, by which the Confederation became practically independent

of the Empire, the circle was enlarged by the entrance (1501) of two more Imperial Free Cities, Basel (a town of Roman origin, and, later, long governed by its bishops), and Schaffhausen (which had grown up round the Benedictine monastery of All Saints), thus pushing the frontiers of our League up to, and even beyond, the fateful river Rhine. Last of all (for no further members were admitted afterwards till 1798) came Appenzell in 1513, a pastoral highland region, which had won its freedom from the Abbot of St. Gall at the Battle of the Stoss Pass (1405); it had passed through two stages of "alliance" (in 1411 and 1452) before it was received as a full member of the Confederation, which, as before (save for a partial exception in the case of Fribourg), remained a League of purely German-speaking people.

Our Confederation was also extended during this period in two directions, for its political system became complicated by the creation of two new classes of "hangers-on," so to speak, which came into being in the fifteenth century—the "allies, or associates" (or half members), and the "subject lands" (which were ruled as conquered territories, and only attained political freedom in 1798 and 1803). To take the "associates" first. These were various districts or towns which entered into more or less close alliances with our League, and, in some cases, were later on admitted into it. Such were (the exact relations varying greatly) Appenzell (1411), the Abbot of St. Gall (1451), the towns of St. Gall and of Schaffhausen (both 1454); then those (extra "Swiss") of Rottweil (1463), and of Mühlhausen (1466), and the Bishop of Constance (1469), whose diocese took in all "Switzerland" lying west of the river Aar (the rest belonged to the See of Lausanne). To these should be added two sister-Confederations—those of the Valais (1416–17), in the upper valley of the Rhone, which had succeeded in obtaining political freedom internally, and of the Three Rætian Leagues (or the Grisons), around the sources of the Rhine, the Inn, and the Landquart (1497–8); the accession of these two states extended the boundaries of the Confederation, on the one side, to the Alps and the Milanese, and, on the other, to the Tyrol and the Adige valley, both held by the Austrian Habsburgs.

Further, one or more members of our League obtained by force of arms other districts, which were ruled as "subject lands"—so in 1415 the Aargau and in 1460 the Thurgau, both taken from the Habsburgs. From soon after 1415 onwards till 1712 the "Diet" sat



[Photo by]

ULRICH ZWINGLI

[W. A. Mansell & Co.]

After Calvin, Ulrich Zwingli was the most famous of the Swiss Protestant reformers. He was born at St. Gall in 1484, and after studying in Vienna became a pastor, and after some years established himself in Zürich, where his preaching created a great sensation and ushered in the Reformation. He was killed at the battle of Kappel in 1531.





Photo by]

## THE CASTLE OF CHILLON

[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.

Chillon, famed in song and story, stands at the eastern end of the Lake of Geneva. The castle dates from very early times, though the present building is mainly thirteenth-century work. At one period it was used as a state prison. The Swiss patriot Bonnivard, hero of Byron's "Prisoner of Chillon," was incarcerated here in the sixteenth century.

at Baden in Aargau, as there the accounts of the subject bailiwicks were most conveniently arranged every year. More important, in a sense, were the conquests of bits of the Milanese, chiefly by Uri and its immediate neighbours. These Italian conquests (named "the bailiwicks across the mountains") began in 1403 by the seizure of the Val Leventina (the upper valley of the Ticino, coming down from the St. Gotthard Pass), while the Val d'Ossola (the upper Tosa valley, coming down from the Gries Pass) was alternately won and lost (1410-1416), and Bellinzona bought in 1419. But the whole of these conquests were lost in 1422 at the unfortunate Battle of Arbedo. The second period of Italian conquest began in 1440, when Uri regained the Val Leventina (which it ruled as its own till 1798), but twice won and lost the Val d'Ossola (1425-6, and 1512-15), though in 1478 the Swiss defeated the Milanese in the bloody fight of Giornico.

In 1500 the Three Lands took Bellinzona, with the Val Blenio and the so-called "Riviera," while all the Confederates (save Appenzell) in 1512 conquered Lugano, Locarno, the Val Maggia, and Mendrisio. All these conquests of 1500-1512 were kept till 1798 (when, as we shall see, they were raised to the political level of their former masters, and in 1803 were joined together in the Canton of Tessin). These conquests, made largely with French aid, vastly increased the power of the Swiss in the Milanese, so that in 1512 they placed their candidate on the ducal throne. But the jealousy of France was aroused by the increasing advance of the Swiss to the position of a European Power; yet though the Swiss won at Novara (1513), in the end the French beat them decisively at Marignano (1515). The result was that the first alliance with France (1452) became in 1516 an Everlasting Peace, while in 1521 the Swiss (save Zürich) bound themselves to supply a large number of mercenaries to France, in exchange for a considerable annual pension—an event which later had most important consequences. (It was during this

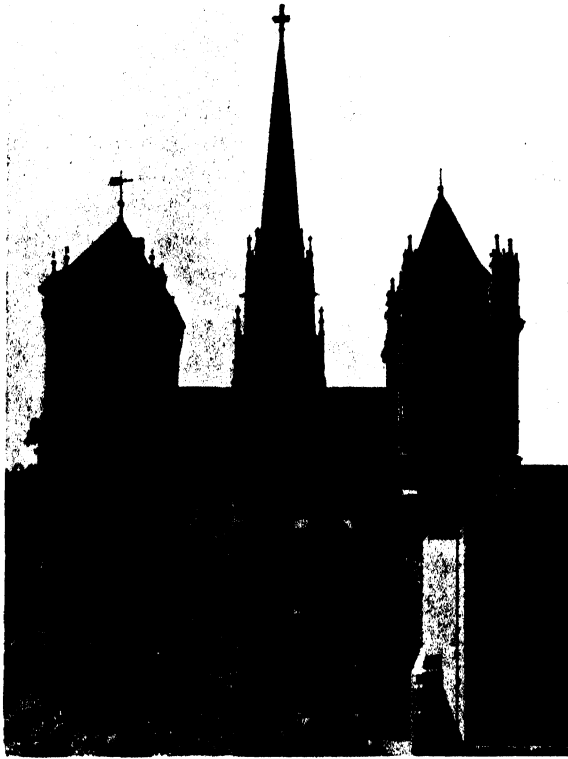
period that the Papal Swiss Guard was founded in 1505 by Julius II.—the Swiss Guard of the French kings dates only from 1567.)

Of more domestic interest was the Civil War (1436-1450), which broke out between Zürich and the other Confederates as to the division of the lands of the last Count of the Toggenburg. In this sordid conflict, Zürich, forgetting its present position, called in Austrian help (1442), and the Austrians finally summoned to their aid a body of French freebooters (called the "Armagnacs" after a former leader). These were met at the gates of Basel, by a small Swiss force, which, though defeated, carried off the honours of the day at the fight of St. Jakob on the Birs (1444). The commander of these freebooters was the Dauphin Louis, who, after his accession as Louis XI. of France, renewed in 1463 and 1470 the alliance with the valiant Swiss first made by his father, Charles VII., in 1452. In 1474 Louis succeeded in negotiating the Everlasting Peace between the Swiss and the Habsburgs, the latter finally renouncing all claims to lands taken from them by the Swiss. Louis desired to excite the Swiss to oppose the rising power of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, who aimed at establishing a great "Middle Kingdom," and this French policy was strongly urged by Bern. Among other places in Savoy captured by the Bernese (1475) were Grandson and Morat. Charles determined to retake both, but in 1476 met with two tremendous defeats at the hands of the Swiss—first, at Grandson (March 2nd), and next at Morat (June 22nd), losing his life and crown at Nancy early in 1477. This short Burgundian war (1475-6) did very much to stimulate the growth of a true national feeling among the Swiss, who, too, were now for



FAREL PERSUADES CALVIN TO SETTLE IN GENEVA.

William Farel, the Swiss reformer, established himself in Geneva in 1532, and in three years persuaded the Great Council of that city to adopt the reformed faith. In 1536 Calvin visited Geneva and made a great impression on Farel, who appreciated his powerful personality. Calvin, however, was reluctant to throw himself actively into the work of reformation, and it was only under the greatest pressure from Farel that Calvin decided to make his home in Geneva and devote his life to the sacred cause.



CATHEDRAL OF ST. PIERRE, GENEVA.

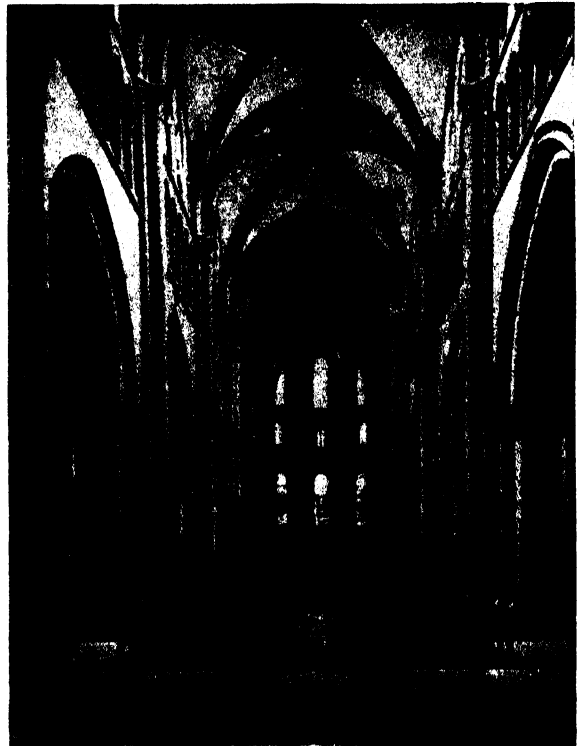
The Cathedral of St. Pierre, where Calvin preached for many years, was founded in 1024, but the bulk of the structure was built in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

brought about a standstill in its political development which lasted for nearly three hundred years.

IV. *The Religious Reformation, and the formal independence of the Confederation recognized by the Empire, 1519-1648.*

It was early in 1519 that Ulrich Zwingli (1484-1531), a native of Wildhaus, the highest village in the Toggenburg, after having been parish priest in Glarus (1506), and in Einsiedeln (1516), commenced his religious and political reforming activity in Zürich. As a religious reformer, he was the most "Protestant" of his contemporaries, attributing to the Sacraments a mere figurative significance, and holding that the State and the Church are practically identical. As a political reformer he held strong anti-French views, and in 1521 prevented Zürich from joining in the engagement by which the Confederation agreed to furnish mercenaries to the French king. His progress in the former department was slower, but finally the three great towns of Zürich (1523), Bern (1528) and Basel (1529) adopted the new doctrines. This, however, was not effected without opposition. A first conflict was avoided by the First Peace of Kappel (1529), based on the

the first time brought into direct relations with French-speaking districts, some of which became "subject lands," and thus in a sense parts of the German-speaking Confederation. The fruits of these victories were lost by the great defeat of Marignano (1515), which put a stop for a long time to the development of the Swiss "nation." Yet in other respects the Swiss did well, between their Burgundian victories and their Italian defeat. They had made alliances (1497-8) with the Three Raetian Leagues, far away in the Grisons, and were also very unwilling to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the "Imperial Chamber of Justice" (set up by the Emperor Maximilian in 1495). Hence they took up arms, and utterly routed the Imperial and Austrian troops on May 22nd, 1499, at the Calven Gorge (this battle is often wrongly named of the "Malsérheide," which is a long way off). The result of this victory was the Peace of Basel (September 22nd, 1499), by which the Emperor tacitly admitted that the Confederation was practically independent of the Empire. It was thus rapidly rising into importance; but first Marignano, and then the unexpected religious Reformation,



INTERIOR OF THE CATHEDRAL, GENEVA.

The interior is mainly in the style of the transition from Late Romanesque to Early Gothic. There are some fine Gothic choir stalls and some remarkable monuments.

principle of "religious parity." But passions ran high, especially as to what religious views should be held by the "common bailiwicks." A short war ensued, in which the Protestants were defeated at Kappel (October 11th, 1531), Zwingli falling in the fight, while the subsequent Second Peace of Kappel protected the rights of minorities in religious matters. The Confederation was now permanently divided in religious matters; but as there was a Protestant majority in only four Cantons (Zürich, Bern, Basel and Schaffhausen, Glarus being equally divided), there were constant disputes and quarrels, which greatly hindered the prosperity of the Confederation. The town of Geneva (of pre-Roman origin, and long governed by its bishops) finally adopted the new doctrines in 1535 (Calvin ruled there only from 1541 onwards), and was allied to Bern and Zürich, but formed no part of the Confederation till 1814.



CALVIN AT A COUNCIL IN GENEVA, 1549.

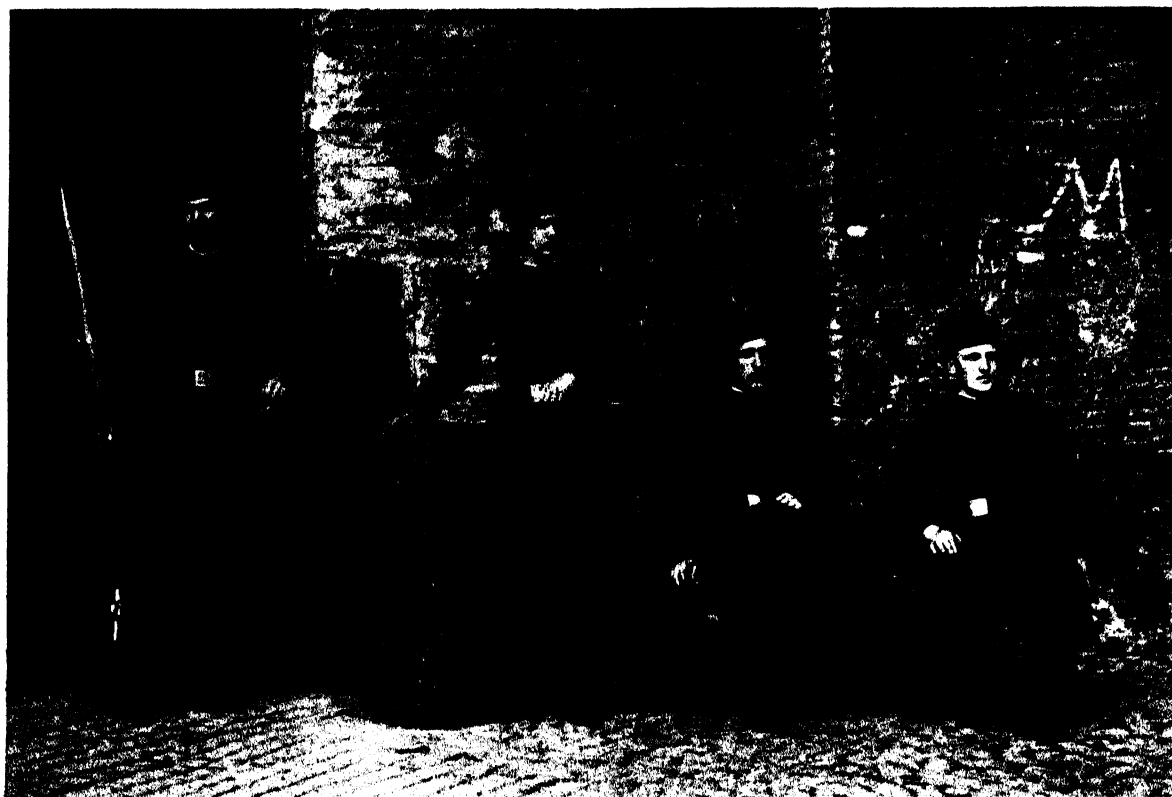
Calvin was banished from Geneva in 1539, but two years later the edict was revoked and he returned in triumph to become the real ruler of the city for the rest of his life. He was able to set up his own ecclesiastical system, and his religious authority was unchallenged save when a rival theologian entered into controversy with him on points of doctrine.

so that here we may pass over its local religious history. Bern, which had long had its eyes on Savoy lands, and had secured a bit of them in 1475, proceeded in 1536 to seize Vaud and the bishopric of Lausanne, as well as North Savoy (or the Chablais), upon which it forced the new doctrines, though in 1564, by the Treaty of Lausanne, it had to give back the Chablais to Savoy.

By this time the opposition to the new doctrines had been organized more powerfully than at first, especially after the reforms sanctioned by the Council of Trent (1563). From 1570 onwards the leader as to Switzerland was St. Charles Borromeo, the saintly archbishop of Milan (1560-1584), in which diocese the Italian bailiwicks of the Confederation were situated. The Jesuits were settled at Lucerne in 1574, and in 1581 the Capuchins came to Switzerland. The nucleus of the resistance was the Golden, or Borromean, League (1586), which included the seven Roman Catholic members of the Confederation. These had the majority in the Diet, and kept out doubtful candidates for admittance to the sacred

circle. But in 1597 religious differences split asunder the Canton of Appenzell into two bits, Inner and Ausser Rhodes (the latter Protestant), a division which still exists to-day.

We may pass lightly over the Thirty Years' War, in which the Confederation was neutral, and need only allude to the great troubles (1620-1639) in the Grisons province (since 1512) of the Valtellina, or the Adda Valley, which was of great value to France, Spain and Austria, as commanding the passes into the Tyrol. Far more important for us is the stipulation, contained in both the Treaties of Westphalia (October 24th, 1648), that henceforth the Confederation should be formally independent of the Empire and the Imperial tribunals. This was the official completion of the practical recognition of that



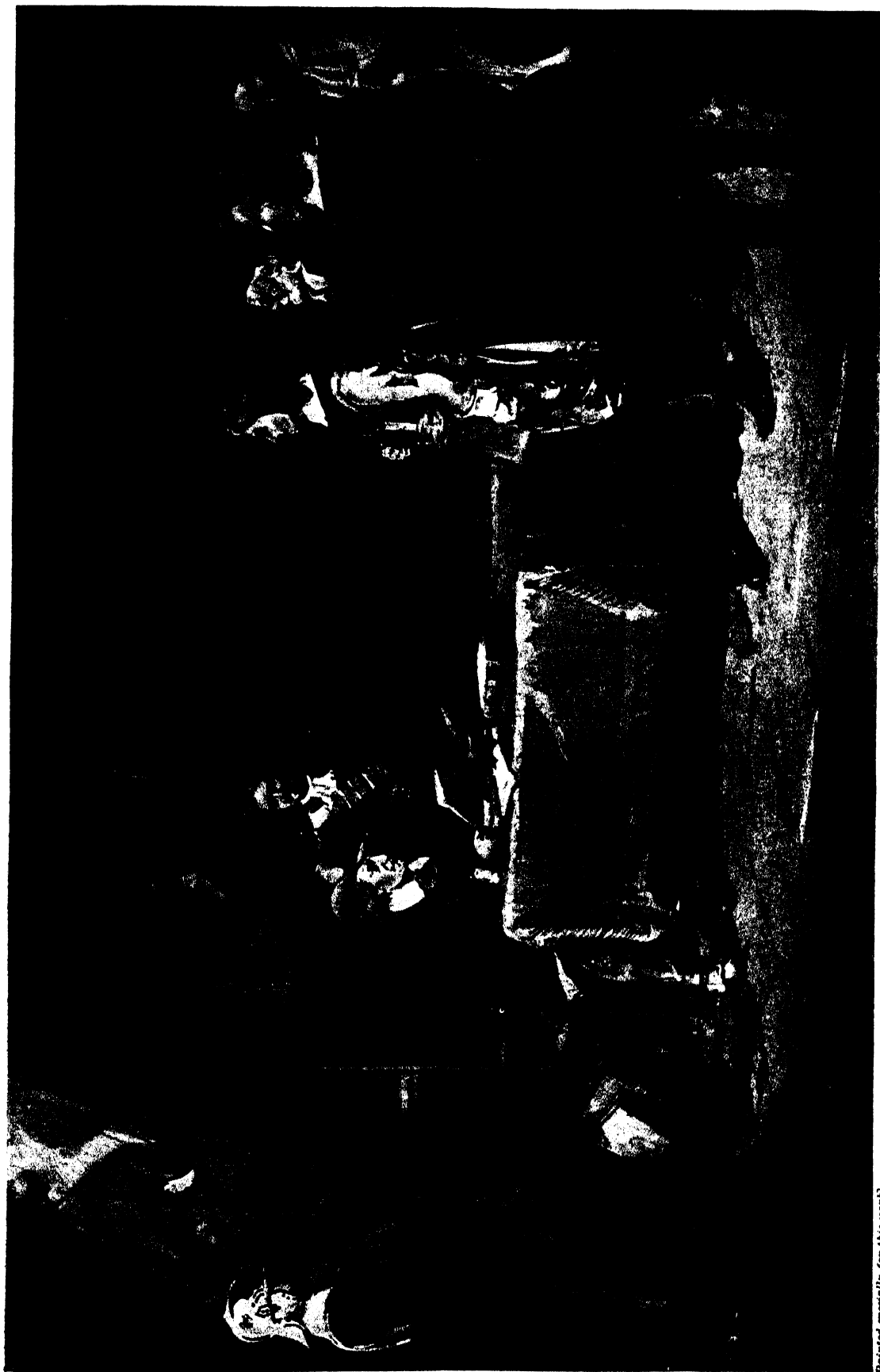
SWISS GUARDS IN THE SERVICE OF THE POPE.

All visitors to the Vatican have noticed the Swiss soldiers who form the Pope's personal bodyguard. They wear a picturesque sixteenth-century costume, though their weapons are, of course, modern.

independence in 1499. The Confederation now ranked as one of the Sovereign States of the European Commonwealth.

#### *V. Religious and political troubles, 1648-1798.*

This is the saddest portion of Swiss history, so that we may pass over it quite briefly. Abroad the Confederation was simply the handmaid of France. Within it was rent by all manner of troubles. In 1653 the peasants around Bern and Lucerne rose in revolt for numerous reasons, economical, social and political, but the rising was put down with an iron hand. A few years later (1656) the Roman Catholics (who had the majority in the Diet) proved victors in the First Villmergen War, but they failed almost completely in the Second Villmergen War (1712); and as they would no longer sit in the Diet at Baden (the scene of their defeat), the Diet later met at Frauenfeld till 1798. Within the territories of certain members of the League, not ruled by the people (like the Three Lands) or by guilds (as Zürich, Basel and Schaffhausen), a tendency strongly manifested itself to restrict the admittance of new burghers, and so to form a close civic aristocracy (as in Bern, Lucerne, Fribourg, and Soleure), while a yet smaller class of burghers succeeded in monopolizing the State offices and so forming a status of "patricians." Yet,



*Painted specially for this work*

SWISS ENVOYS APPEALING TO CROMWELL FOR HELP FOR THE WALDENSES, 1654.

*[By A. Kemp 1889.]*

The Waldenses probably took their name from their founder, Peter Waldo, who preached against the abuses of the Church in the twelfth century. His reforming doctrines spread rapidly, and in spite of centuries of fierce persecution the Waldenses continued to increase in numbers. Their principal establishment was in Piedmont, and in 1654 the persecution in that district was so violent that envoys were sent to seek help from Cromwell, then at the zenith of his power. The incident gave the poet Milton inspiration for one of his finest sonnets.



Painted specially for this work]

[By A. Kemp Tetby.

#### ROUSSEAU'S "CONTRAT SOCIAL" PUBLICLY BURNED AT GENEVA, 1763.

The great political philosopher, Jean Jacques Rousseau, was born in Geneva in 1712. His reforming doctrines were readily accepted by the citizens of Geneva and led to bitter civil strife. In 1763, acting on the advice of Voltaire and the University of Paris, the magistrates ordered his famous treatise, the "Contrat Social," to be publicly burned by the common hangman.

as often happens during times of political depression and torpidity, letters flourished greatly in Switzerland during this otherwise reactionary period. It was also from about the middle of the eighteenth century that travellers began to visit Switzerland as tourists in search of the picturesque, the first real guide-book to the whole country being put forth by the German J. G. Ebel in 1793.

The centre of the intellectual life of Switzerland became the Helvetic Society, founded by various enlightened Swiss in 1762.

#### VI. *The Helvetic Republic and the Act of Mediation, 1798-1814.*

These sixteen years are filled by attempts, made from the outside, to reorganize the Swiss Confederation on modern centralist lines. But the change was too sudden and abrupt, so that, when left again to themselves, the Swiss went back nearly to their old political system, with, however, certain alterations, which carried within them the seeds of later development.

The French Republic, partly attracted by the rumour of great treasures accumulated at Bern, and, incited by some of the leading Swiss political reformers, invaded the Confederation, and, after a fierce battle at Neueneegg, occupied Bern, which was the stronghold of the old aristocratic party. On April 12th, 1798, the "Helvetic Republic, One and Indivisible" was set up. This recognized twenty-three "Cantons" (later only nineteen), ruled by a central government at Lucerne, composed of a legislature of two houses, both elected indirectly by the people, this legislature naming a "Directory," or executive, of five members. A supreme Court of Justice was also created. This was a very violent change indeed, and met with great resistance, especially in the Three Lands. After many fruitless discussions Napoleon worked out an "Act of Mediation" (February 19th, 1803), which represented a middle term between the old and the new systems. To the thirteen old Cantons were added six others; two were St. Gall and the Grisons (the one a former "associate" and the other a former "ally"), while four

other Cantons were created out of former "subject-lands" (Aargau, Thurgau, Tessin and Vaud)—thus making nineteen in all. The Diet was to meet alternately at one of six towns, the chief magistrate of the Canton in question becoming the "Landammann" of "Switzerland" (a term now first officially used). Legislatures of two houses were set up in all Cantons that did not formerly possess (like the Three Lands) democratic primary assemblies. But in the Constitution of 1803 one Canton of 1798 did not appear—the Valais, which in 1802 Napoleon made into the "Rhodanic Republic," and in 1810 annexed to France as the "Department of the Simplon," his object being to keep hold of this region, as commanding some of the chief Alpine passes over into Italy (such as the Great St. Bernard and the Simplon). [Note that Geneva had been annexed in 1798 by Napoleon to France as the capital of the "Département du Léman," and that in 1798 the Swiss "Canton du Léman" took in Vaud only.] But the Constitution of 1803 fell with its framer. At the very end of 1813 the Diet declared its abolition. But after prolonged debates the only decision that could be reached was that the Valais, Neuchâtel (given in 1806 by Napoleon as a former Prussian principality to Marshal Berthier), and Geneva should be admitted full members of the Confederation, which thus comprised twenty-two Cantons. The Great Powers themselves had therefore to step in.

## VII.—*The Federal Constitutions of 1815, 1848 and 1874.*

These three documents, starting from a return, with certain modifications, to the political state of things before 1798, mark three successive steps in the direction of greater centralization, though ardent Swiss reformers still look back with regret to the ideal state of things (from their standpoint) of the Helvetic Republic of 1798. But the whole essence of the Swiss Confederation is that it is not, and, save by abandoning its historical characteristics, probably never can become, a centralized state like France.

As the "Long Diet" could not settle matters, the representatives of the Great Powers, assembled



Photo by]

[The Photochrom Co. Ltd.

## THE ISLAND OF ROUSSEAU, WITH A GENERAL VIEW OF GENEVA.

The city of Geneva, one of the chief towns of Switzerland, lies at the entrance of the river Rhône into the Lake of Geneva. It was well known in Roman times, but is most famous for the prominent part it played in the Reformation. The island of Rousseau recalls the fact that the eminent political philosopher was born in Geneva.



in the Congress of Vienna, had to take action. Certain territorial alterations were made by the Congress (March 20th, 1815), and other modifications proposed. Finally, the new Constitution (called the "Pact of 1815") was accepted on August 7th, 1815, by all the Cantons save Nidwalden (which was soon forced to agree), while on November 20th, 1815, the Congress formally acknowledged the neutrality of Switzerland and of North Savoy—the Powers guaranteeing this being Great Britain, France, Austria, Portugal, Prussia, and Russia. The Confederation thus started on a new and decisive phase of its long history. By this new Constitution it consisted of twenty-two Cantons (that is, the Valais, Neuchâtel and Geneva were added to the nineteen of the Act of Mediation). Each Canton had one vote in the Diet, but no central government was set up, it being provided that every two years the leadership should shift between Zürich, Bern, and Lucerne, the Cantonal Government in each case then becoming for that period the Federal authority, though with limited powers. This was not a very satisfactory

tory state of things. Hence, after the July, 1830, Revolution in Paris many Cantons set about revising their constitutions in accordance with modern ideas. But all attempts to do the like by the Federal Constitution failed completely, while in 1833 the Diet had to sanction the division of Basel into two half-Cantons (the similar split in Schwyz did not last long). Further troubles now arose in connection with the suppression of monasteries by Aargau (1841) and the proposed introduction of the Jesuits in Lucerne. In 1843 the seven Roman Catholic Cantons formed a separate



*Painted specially for this work*

*(By M. Jernston, R.B.A., N.B.A.)*

**THE BURNING OF THE CASTLE OF WADENSCHWYL IN 1804.**

In 1803 Napoleon put an end to the Helvetic Republic and gave Switzerland a new constitution under the name of the Act of Mediation. The change was generally popular, but there were several local risings, notably at the little town of Wadenschwyl, where the fine old castle was burnt down during an insurrection in 1804.

League (or "Sonderbund"), and Lucerne formally called in the Jesuits (1844). But the Radicals could not command a majority in the Diet till May, 1847, when they secured the vote of St. Gall (the "Canton of Fate," as it was afterwards called). A few weeks later the Diet resolved that the "Sonderbund" was contrary to the Pact of 1815, and a short war followed (November, 1847), which ended in the triumph of the Radical party. The European troubles of 1848 allowed the Swiss to settle their own affairs as they thought fit. Hence on September 12th, 1848, the new Federal Constitution came



**ST. GOTTHARD RAILWAY AT GIORNICO.**

The tunnels on the St. Gotthard Railway, which follows a circuitous course, are a great testimony to the ingenuity of the Swiss people in overcoming the difficulties of mountain engineering.



**LUCERNE.**

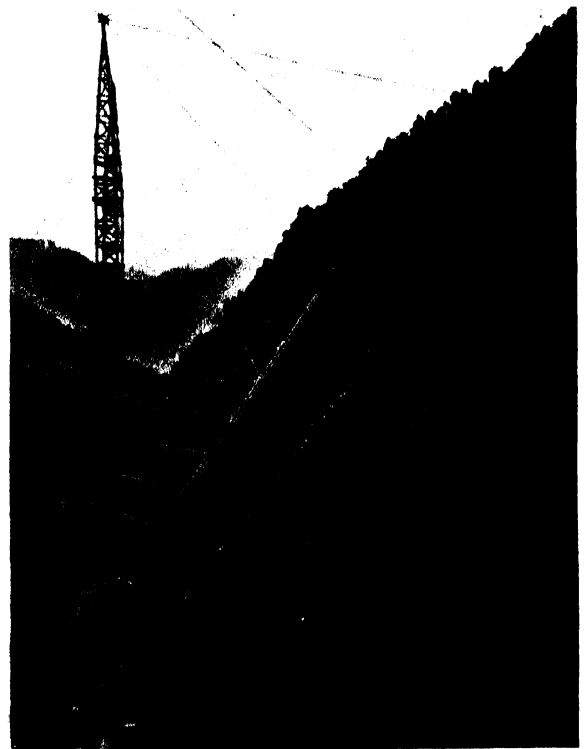
Lucerne is charmingly situated on the river Reuss, which is crossed by two wooden bridges. The chapel bridge is seen here, and by its side rises the massive water tower.



*Photos by]*

**STATUE OF BALMAT AND SAUSSURE AT CHAMONIX.**

This statue was erected to the memory of Auguste Balmat, who climbed Mont Blanc for the first time in 1786. Balmat is pointing out his way to Saussure, the scientist.



*[Underwood & Underwood.*

**RAILWAY ARCH OVER THE KANDER VALLEY.**

This arch carries the Loetschberg line over the Kander Valley. The line cuts the figure eight turn, and the greater part is carried along the slopes of the Birrenhorn.



F. HUBER.

François Huber, who was born at Geneva in 1750, was one of the most celebrated naturalists of his day. He devoted himself particularly to the study of bees, and in 1792 published a famous work on that subject.



H. B. DE SAUSSURE.

This great scientist, who took natural history for his domain and enlarged its boundaries by his discoveries, was born in Geneva.

into force. A Federal legislature of two Houses was set up—one House, the "Council of States," containing two members from each Canton, however small, and thus representing the principle of Cantonal sovereignty, while the other, the "National Council," was elected for three years, every twenty thousand Swiss citizens (or fraction above ten thousand) having a right to a representative. A Federal executive of seven members (the "Federal Council") was also created, the members being elected for three years by the two Houses of the Federal Assembly, sitting together in Congress; the chairman was chosen by the Federal Assembly annually, and given the grand title.



J. H. PESTALOZZI

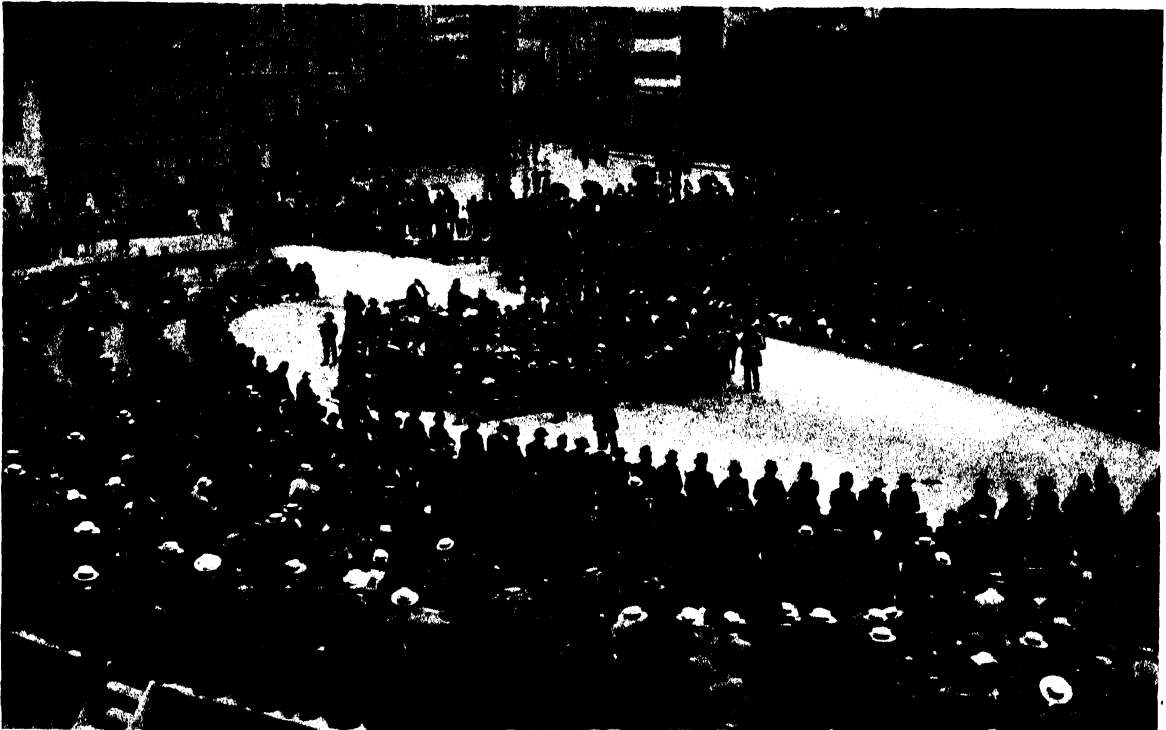
Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi was born at Zürich in 1746 and devoted his life to making himself an authority on methods of education. His views acquired such authority that he received government assistance in founding schools for the poor.

(though with little more than decorative functions) of "President of the Confederation." A Federal supreme tribunal was also instituted, as well as a Federal polytechnic school, and power was given (never yet exercised) to create a Federal university. The Jesuits were forbidden to settle in Switzerland, while all "Christians" were guaranteed the free exercise of their religion. This scheme was a tremendous advance on the Pact of 1815, especially as to the creation of a regular Parliament on modern lines (in place of the unwieldy Diet of envoys), and the setting-up of a central executive and

supreme tribunal. A few weeks later (November 28th, 1848) the Federal Assembly, acting on powers given to it, selected Bern as the seat of the Federal Government, though officially Zürich ranks as the senior Canton. In consequence of this centralization many non-political advantages were obtained—uniformity in coinage, customs duties, telegraph, posts, weights and measures, and road administration. The Federal Polytechnic School was opened in 1855.

In 1857 the anomalous position of Neuchâtel was finally regulated. By hereditary succession it had become (1707) a principality held by the King of Prussia, its government only forming part of the Confederation. But in 1856 a royalist conspiracy led to the mediation of Napoleon III., by virtue of which the King of Prussia renounced all his rights (1857), and so Neuchâtel became a Swiss Canton on exactly the same footing as any other.

After the "Vatican Council" of 1870 a strong agitation was carried on against supposed Papal



*Photo by]*

*[J. Brocherel.*

## A CANTONAL PARLIAMENT

The Cantonal Parliaments in the open air, which are still recognized officially in several Cantons of Switzerland at the present day, are of old standing. They assemble late in April or early in May, and are attended by every citizen.

claims, and this religious struggle became mixed up with politics. In 1866 the restriction as to "Christians" was swept away.

But it was only on April 19th, 1874, that a new Constitution was accepted by popular vote. This further strengthened the central power. A free system of elementary education was set up, superintended by the Confederation, but managed by the Cantons. The "Referendum" (a name taken from the old practice of the envoys at the Diet "referring" to their governments for definite instructions) was introduced in its "facultative" form as to Federal laws (it is obligatory in the case of alterations in the Federal Constitution)—a popular vote must be taken if thirty thousand Swiss citizens or eight Cantons demand it. Naturally the several Cantons were ahead of the Confederation in point of adoption of such reforms, so that in this respect the Confederation lags behind, despite the wishes of ardent political reformers.

Since 1874 there have been but two alterations in the Federal political system. In 1891 there was introduced the "Initiative," but only as to partial revisions of the Constitution—by it fifty thousand

Swiss citizens can compel the Federal authorities to take into consideration a given subject, or a bill relating to that subject; but, later, the regular course by "Referendum" must be pursued. In 1914 an Administrative Tribunal was set up with jurisdiction over all administrative disputes, thus relieving the Federal Executive from much routine work. But other proposed reforms of the Federal Constitution have hitherto failed, such as the proportional election of the "National Council" (1900 and 1903; but the movement is rapidly gaining in force) and the direct popular election of



Photo by]

## BERNESE COSTUME.

[J. Brocneret.

The peasant costumes of Switzerland differ widely; that of Bern is among the most noted. In some districts special bridal dresses are kept in the parish house and lent to those too poor to buy them.

coming into effect in 1912 (as to the latter not quite yet, owing to the great complication of the subject). Yet certain proposals supported by the extreme political parties have not met with the approval of the people, such as the legal Right to Work, a proposal defeated by a very large majority in 1894. In 1903 the customs duties were very much raised, so that the Confederation became a "Protectionist" State.

As the increased proceeds were devoted to various objects (excellent in themselves, but not essential), the reduction of the yield of these duties in consequence of the European War of 1914 has greatly embarrassed Swiss finance.

the Federal Executive (1900 and 1910). Many desire also to extend the "Initiative" to *all* reforms, and not to restrict it to partial revisions of the Federal Constitution, while others maintain that *all* Federal bills (and not only amendments to the Federal Constitution) should necessarily be submitted to a popular vote ("Obligatory Referendum").

On the other hand, much attention has been devoted to various social and economical reforms. Thus in 1887 the monopoly of alcohol was given to the Confederation, which, too, in 1908 received power to suppress the manufacture of absinthe within the country. The nationalization of the railways (apart from the mountain tourist lines) was accepted in 1898, and was carried out in 1901 (as regards the St. Gotthard line in 1909).

The principle of uniform Federal Civil and Criminal codes of law was approved in 1898, and the Civil Code drawn up came into force on January 1st, 1912 (the Criminal Code is not yet ready). In 1905 a State Federal Bank was set up, while in 1908 the Confederation obtained the control of the water-supply of the country, which is very important from the point of view of creation of electric power. In 1900 the principle of State Insurance against Sickness and Accidents was accepted, the detailed law as to the former point

# DATES OF PORTUGUESE HISTORY

DATE.	RULER.	CHIEF EVENTS OF PERIOD.
1095-1112	COUNT HENRY OF BUR-GUNDY.	Portugal becomes a separate County under the suzerainty of the Kings of Leon.
1112-1128	THERESA, Regent.	Unsuccessful campaigns against Leon and Castile. Theresa deposed after rebellion.
1128-1185	AFFONSO HENRIQUES.	Reconquest of part of Southern Portugal, including Lisbon, from the Moors. Frontier extended from the Mondego to the Tagus.
1185-1211	SANCHO I.	War with Leon. Internal administration reorganized. Conflict with the Papacy over questions of ecclesiastical jurisdiction and property.
1211-1223	AFFONSO II.	First meeting of Cortes. Further victories over the Moors. Conflict with the Papacy leads to interdict and excommunication of King.
1228-1248	SANCHO II.	Alentejo reconquered from the Moors. Sancho deposed by order of the Pope.
1248-1279	AFFONSO III.	Moors finally expelled from Portuguese soil. Title of King first assumed by ruler of Portugal. Leon and Castile recognize independence of the kingdom. Cortes of Coimbra (1261).
1279-1325	DINIZ.	Foundation of Portuguese navy. First commercial agreement with England. Foundation of Coimbra University. Nationalization of Military Orders.
1325-1357	AFFONSO IV.	Tragedy of Inez de Castro.
1357-1367	PEDRO I.	Cortes of Elvas. Development of friendly relations with England.
1367-1385	FERDINAND and LEONORA	Wars against Castile. Portuguese aided by English army. Rebellion against Leonora. Siege of Lisbon by Castilians. Cortes of Coimbra establishes dynasty of Aviz.
1385-1433	JOHN I.	Battle of Aljubarrota. Treaty of Windsor. Portuguese invade Morocco. Period of maritime discovery begins, under the influence of Prince Henry the Navigator.
1433-1448	EDWARD.	Defeat of Portuguese at Tangier. Exploration of African coast to Sierra Leone. Establishment of African slave trade.
1448-1481	AFFONSO V.	Gulf of Guinea explored. Important trade in gold established. Capture of Tangier.
1481-1495	JOHN II.	Discovery of the Congo. Dias rounds the Cape of Good Hope. Treaty of Tordesillas. Power of feudal nobility broken by the Crown.
1495-1521	MANOEL I.	Vasco da Gama reaches India by sea. Conquests of Almeida and Albuquerque. Creation of Portuguese Empire in India, Africa, Brazil and the Far East. Persecution of the Portuguese Jews.
1521-1557	JOHN III.	The Inquisition established in Portugal. Jesuits obtain control of national education.
1557-1578	SEBASTIAN	Crushing defeat of the Portuguese at Al Kasr al Kebir.
1578-1580	HENRY	Last King of Aviz dynasty.
1581-1598	PHILIP I. (Philip II. of Spain).	"Sixty Years' Captivity" begins. Portugal becomes practically a province of Spain.
1598-1621	PHILIP II. (III. of Spain).	Portuguese colonies attacked by English, French and Dutch. Portuguese interests everywhere subordinated to those of Spain.
1621-1640	PHILIP III. (IV. of Spain).	"Sixty Years' Captivity" ended by national insurrection, after two abortive rebellions.
1640-1656	JOHN IV.	First King of the Braganza dynasty. War with Spain (1640-1668). Alliance with France.
1656-1683	AFFONSO VI.	War with Spain concluded. Alliance with England. Marriage of Catherine of Braganza to Charles II. of England. Cession of Bombay and Tangier. Reforms of Schomberg and Castello Melhor. Regency of Dom Pedro and banishment of Affonso VI.
1683-1706	PEDRO II.	Discoveries of gold and diamonds in Brazil. Methuen Treaty.
1706-1750	JOHN V.	Portugal involved in the War of the Spanish Succession. Great increase in royal revenue. Enormous sums spent on behalf of the Church.
1750-1777	JOSEPH.	Lisbon earthquake. Reforms of Pombal. Expulsion of the Jesuits.
1777-1816	MARIA I. Pedro III. King Consort until 1786.	Queen becomes insane (1788), and her son Dom John acts as regent. Spread of democratic ideas in Portugal. Peninsular War. Portugal thrice invaded by Napoleonic armies. Government carried on by Council of Regency during Dom John's absence in Brazil.
1816-1826	JOHN VI.	Constitutional movement of 1820-1826. Declaration of Brazilian independence.
1826-1828	PEDRO IV., Regent.	Dom Pedro, first Emperor of Brazil, acts as regent in the interests of his niece, Queen Maria II., and his brother, Dom Miguel.
1828-1834	MIGUEL.	Miguelite wars, arising from rival claims of Maria II. and Miguel. Reaction in favour of absolute monarchy. Ultimate victory of Maria II. and Constitutional party.
1834-1853	MARIA II. (Maria da Gloria).	Struggle between the supporters of the Constitution of 1820 and the supporters of the Charter of 1826.
1853-1861	PEDRO V.	Beginning of modern Constitutional Monarchy. Outbreak of cholera throughout Portugal.
1861-1889	LUIZ.	Reorganization of political parties. Abolition of slavery in Portuguese colonies. Growth of Republicanism.
1889-1908	CARLOS.	Dispute with Great Britain over frontiers in Africa. British ultimatum presented (1891). Financial crisis. Friendly relations with Great Britain re-established (1898). "Dictatorship" of Franco. Assassination of King and Crown Prince.
1908-1910	MANOEL II.	Republican revolution. End of Portuguese Monarchy.
1910-1911	DR. THEOPHILO BRAGA, Provisional President.	Republican Constitution adopted.
1911-	DR. MANOEL ARRIAGA, President.	Law of Separation between Church and State. Growth of Socialism. Rise of new political parties. Portugal sides with Great Britain, France and Russia in European War, 1914.



Photo by]

[Underwood &amp; Underwood.

## VIEW OF LEIRIA AND THE CASTLE.

The city of Leiria is strikingly situated round a steep hill, on which stands the ancient castle which was built by Afonso Henriques in the twelfth century. For some time it was in the possession of the Moors.

province, these ancestors of the Portuguese intermarried with the race that ruled the world, borrowed its dress, its law, its manners, its art and literature. When the Roman Empire fell, Portugal became a prey to the fierce half-civilized invaders, Alani and Suevi, who swept down from the North, bringing ruin and devastation, but leaving behind no permanent memorial. They were succeeded by the Visigoths, who founded a Christian kingdom embracing the whole of the Spanish peninsula. Early Portuguese law and custom show many signs of Visigothic influence, but up to the eighth century the civilization of the Peninsula remained the same in essentials as the Romans had left it.

Then came the Moors—Arab and Berber tribes from North Africa, who marched beneath the warrior flag of Islam. They shattered the power of the Visigoths, and hunted their kings into the mountain fastnesses of north-eastern Spain. But unlike the other conquering races who had followed the Romans, they destroyed only to build

## CHAPTER XXIII THE PORTUGUESE

By K. G. JAYNE

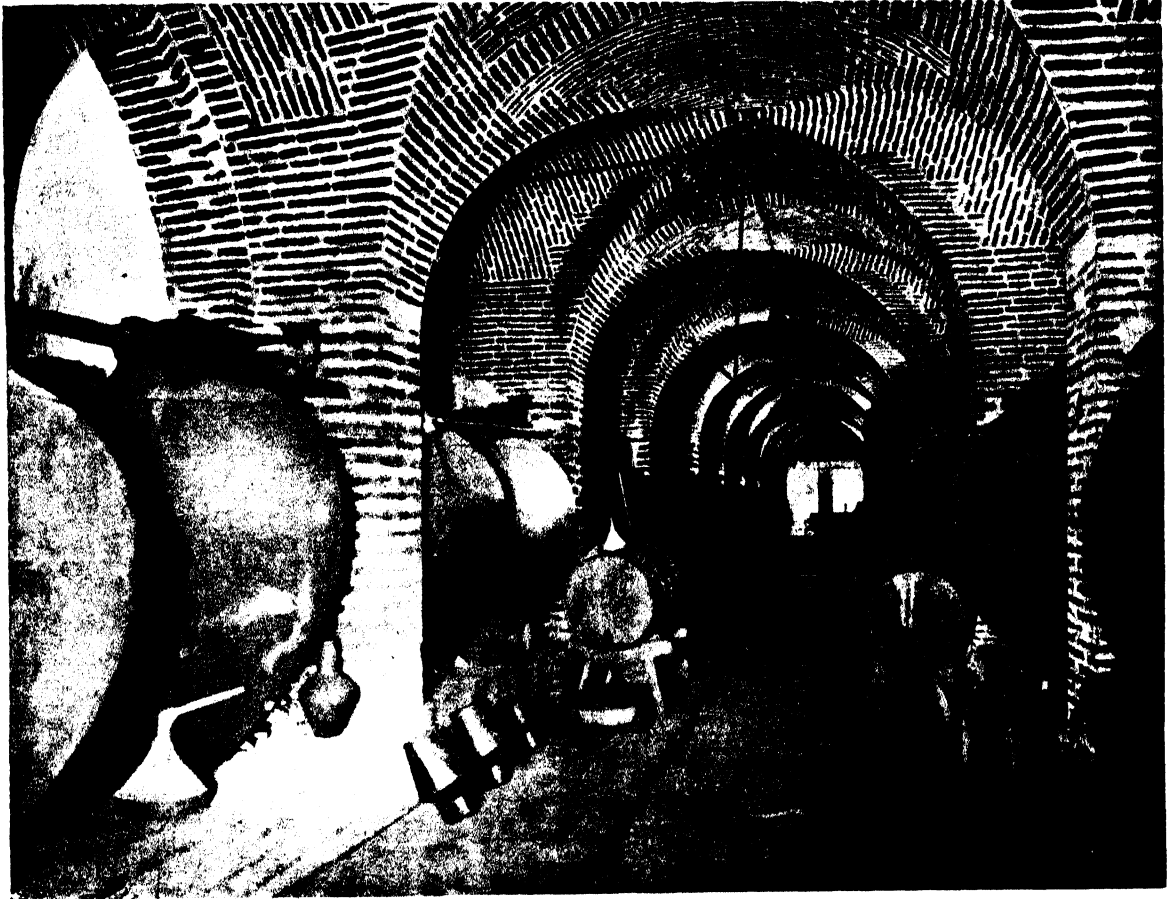
NINE centuries ago, the territory which now is Portugal had no separate name; its inhabitants had no consciousness of national unity. Descendants of the Lusitanians and other barbarous Spanish tribes with here and there a tincture of Greek or Phœnician blood, they had first been conquered and civilized by the Romans after the destruction of the maritime power of Carthage. They learned the rude Latin dialects spoken by the Roman legionaries about their camp-fires—that soldier-Latin which forms the basis of modern Portuguese, as of all the Romance languages. When Hispania became a Roman



## THE MOORISH CASTLE AT GUIMARAES.

This ancient castle, in an excellent state of preservation, may be called the cradle of the Portuguese monarchy, for it was here that Afonso Henriques, first King of Portugal, was born in 1110. The castle was built by the Moors

up. They brought with them a new and in many respects a higher civilization, and in central and southern Portugal especially, the mark of their presence remains. In medicine, astronomy, mathematics, chemistry, the Moorish doctors had no rivals in any Christian city. Their mosques and palaces and fortified places furnished a model of excellence which later Christian architects vainly strove to surpass. In many an obscure Portuguese village one still finds many traces of their work—here in a delicate horseshoe arch, there in a frieze of coloured tiles. Even the graceful forms of the pottery in the village market, the wells with their perpetual chains of buckets, and the decorative designs carved by peasants on their ox-yokes are of Moorish origin. The Moors taught their Christian



A WINE CELLAR AT ALEMTEJO, SOUTHERN PORTUGAL.

The wine trade of Portugal is of considerable importance to the country, but more especially that in port wine, which is produced in the neighbourhood of Oporto, from which it derives its name. There is also another wine district near to Lisbon producing wines of the claret type.

subjects much of the science of agriculture—how to make arid lands fertile by irrigation, how to cultivate the fruits and herbs which they brought over from Africa.

Thus among the formative influences brought to bear upon the Portuguese people during the first thousand years of their known history, but before they had become a separate nation, three may be distinguished as of paramount importance: the Roman conquest; the introduction and spread of Christianity; the two hundred and fifty years of Moorish rule.

## THE MAKING OF PORTUGAL: 1095-1279

THE supremacy of the Moors was never complete over the whole Peninsula. A resolute minority of Christians remained unsubdued among the mountains of Asturias; its leaders learned to take advantage



of the besetting weakness of the Moors—their dynastic and religious feuds. Fired with crusading zeal, they forced the invaders slowly back towards the south and west, founding new kingdoms and principalities in the territories thus rewon. At the time of the Norman Conquest of England, the dominant power in Christian Spain was the Kingdom of Leon, which included the lands immediately north and east of what then became known as the County of Portugal. This region, which lay between the river Minho on the north and the river Mondego on the south, took its name (*Terra Portucalensis*) from the little seaport which the Romans had founded on the southern bank of the Douro estuary and had named *Portus Cale*. It included the cities of Oporto, already a flourishing seaport, Braga, whose archbishops claimed to be primates of all Spain, and Coimbra, afterwards the headquarters of national culture and



SOME OLD WINE JARS AT ALEMTEJO.

Much of the Portuguese pottery is made in traditional forms which the natives still cling to. The unglazed potteryware, to be seen in country market-places, is often really pleasing in appearance, being modelled on Arab or classical forms.

the seat of a university hardly less famous in the Middle Ages than Oxford, Bologna or Paris. Here, in this northern half of Portugal, society was organized on a feudal basis; the Church and the territorial nobility were all-powerful, the first owning no earthly head except the Pope, the second giving such allegiance as could be enforced to the Kings of Leon. In the southern or unredeemed half of Portugal, beyond the Mondego, the day still began and ended with the Mahommedan Call to Prayer. The Christians were subjects at best, slaves at worst; trade was largely in the hands of the Jews, and the Moslems were warriors and lords of the soil, who waged a never-ending border war upon Leon and its dependency the County of Portugal.

As the Christian reconquest of the Peninsula proceeded, many Crusading knights flocked from all parts of Europe to serve under the banners of the Spanish kings. Among them was one Count Henry of

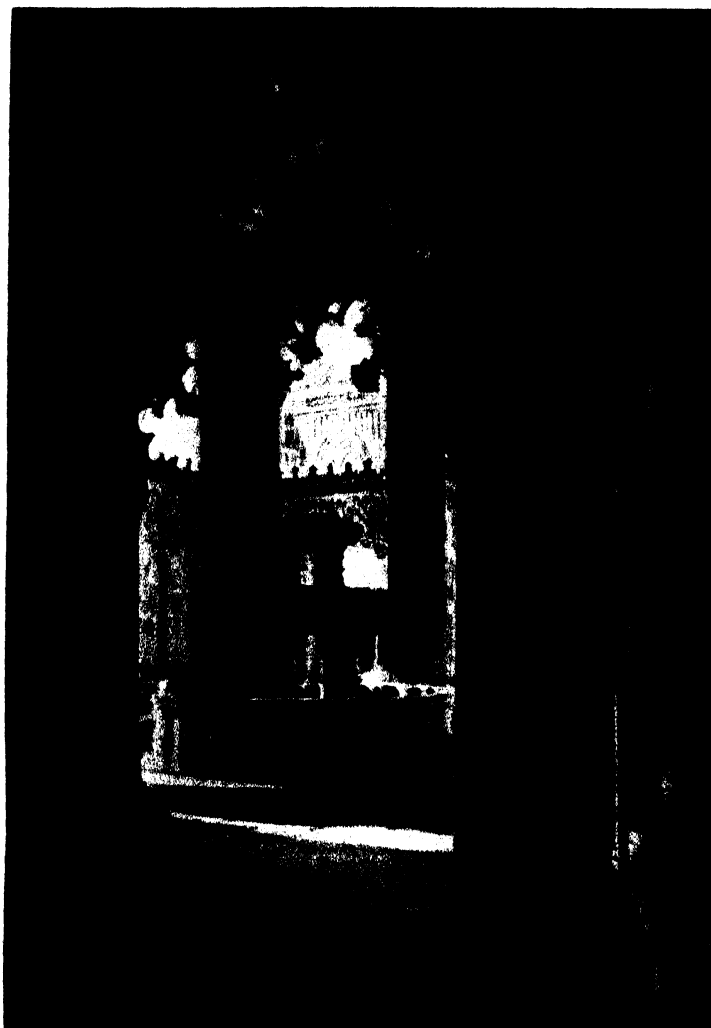


*Painted specially for this work*

*[By M. Donovan, R.B.A., N.B.A.]*

#### CAPTURE OF LISBON, 1147.

Affonso I. is credited by historians with several (and by legend with innumerable) triumphs over the Moors, of which the greatest was undoubtedly the capture of Lisbon in 1147. The King began the campaign by taking the fortress of Santarém, after which his forces were swelled by the arrival of a large number of Crusaders who were on their way to Palestine. The capture of Lisbon in the face of strong opposition set the seal to Affonso's military reputation.



THE MONASTERY OF BATALHA.

The town of Batalha boasts perhaps the most famous monastery in the world. It belongs to the Dominican monks and was commenced in 1388 by John I. to commemorate his victory at Aljubarrota. The buildings were not completed until 1515, and the monastery affords the finest example of Portuguese Gothic architecture, though the tendency towards extravagance of detail is marked.

almost the only occupations befitting a man of gentle blood, Affonso Henriques was a fit leader for the turbulent barons and churchmen who rode to battle under his command. He waged long wars with varying fortune upon the Kings of Leon and Castile, but it was his victories over the Moors which brought him fame and power. In 1139, the chroniclers relate that he shattered a host of two hundred thousand Mahommedans, led by five kings, on the plains of Ourique in Southern Portugal; but a more substantial triumph was the storming and capture of Lisbon in 1147. In this adventure the Portuguese were reinforced by a body of Crusaders, many of them Englishmen, Flemings and Germans, who had put in at Oporto on their way to Palestine, and had volunteered for service against the "infidels." Many Burgundian and French knights, belonging notably to the powerful Order of the Templars, had already established themselves permanently in Portugal, adding much to its growing military strength. It was largely through the aid of these trained and splendidly equipped fighting men that Affonso Henriques was enabled, on his death in 1185, to bequeath to his son, Sancho I., a domain extending southward no longer only to the Mondego, but to the Tagus. Thus the whole of Portugal except the two southern provinces of Alemtejo and Algarve had now been won back from the Moors.

Burgundy, who in 1095 married Theresa, natural daughter of King Alfonso VI. of Leon, and received as her dowry the County of Portugal. The ambitious Burgundian and his passionate and unscrupulous consort were ill-content with their position as vassals of Leon, and on the death of Alfonso VI. in 1109, they turned their arms against his legitimate daughter and heiress, Queen Urraca, in the hope of seizing her kingdom for themselves.

In 1112 Count Henry died, and after many unsuccessful wars against Leon and Castile, the stormy reign of Theresa came to an end in 1128, when she was deposed by her subjects. She had estranged the nobles, the Church, and her own son, Affonso Henriques, by heaping riches and titles upon her lover, Fernando Peres, Count of Trava, who shared her exile.

Affonso Henriques at once succeeded his mother as Count of Portugal. Legend has magnified his exploits as a warrior and statesman; nevertheless, it was he more than any other man who laid the foundations of Portuguese nationality and the Portuguese state. He is one of the stark heroes of medieval romance—a man of mighty stature and strength, fearless in war and cunning in council. For fifty-seven years he ruled over Portugal, a king in all but name. In that rough age, when fighting, tournaments, and the chase of the wolf and wild boar were

During the century that followed (1185-1279)\* the work of the Christian reconquest was completed ; Portugal was liberated from Spanish suzerainty ; the issue whether Church or Crown should be the supreme power in secular administration was fought out ; and the growth of national sentiment was fostered partly by the creation of a Parliament (Cortes), partly by the grant of charters and privileges to various communities. It would be an error to suppose that these results were all attained as the outcome of a deliberate policy ; they emerged almost as much by accident as by design from the conflict of rival classes and interests within the nation.

The overthrow of the Moorish power was the more easily accomplished because the Moors were themselves disunited, authority being in the hands of many independent chiefs, who were often at feud with one another. Before the middle of the thirteenth century the last strongholds of Mahommedanism in Alemtejo had fallen, and in the reign of Affonso III. (1248-1279) the kingdom reached the final limit of its European expansion by the conquest of the Algarve.

This event led indirectly to the recognition of Portuguese independence. Alfonso X. of Leon and Castile claimed to be feudal lord of the Algarve ; Affonso III. of Portugal, following the example of his predecessors, refused to recognize the authority of a Spanish ruler over lands which he had himself acquired by force of arms. But after a war in which the Castilians gained some measure of success, the matter was compromised by Affonso III. consenting to wed Donna Beatriz de Guzman, the natural daughter of Alfonso X., whose claim was finally withdrawn in 1263. Henceforward the independence of Portugal as a sovereign state went unchallenged.

In 1143 Affonso Henriques had sworn to be a loyal vassal of the Pope and to pay to him an annual tribute of four ounces of gold. But the gradual acquisition of power by the Crown led inevitably to disputes with the Church, especially in the matters of feudal service, the disposition of property, the sanctity of marriage, and the administration of justice.

\* Comprising the reigns of Sancho I., Affonso II., Sancho II., and Affonso III. See Chronological Table.



THE FESTIVAL OF CERES AT BRAGA.

Braga is one of the most ancient cities of Portugal and an important place in Roman times. It has long been noted for its popular celebrations, of which one of the most interesting is the Festival of Ceres, when the peasants come in from the surrounding districts bringing tithes of corn.



PEDRO I.

Pedro I. reigned from 1357 to 1367 and earned for himself the soubriquet of "the Severe" by his just but vigorous administration, which the unruly nobles were inclined to resent.

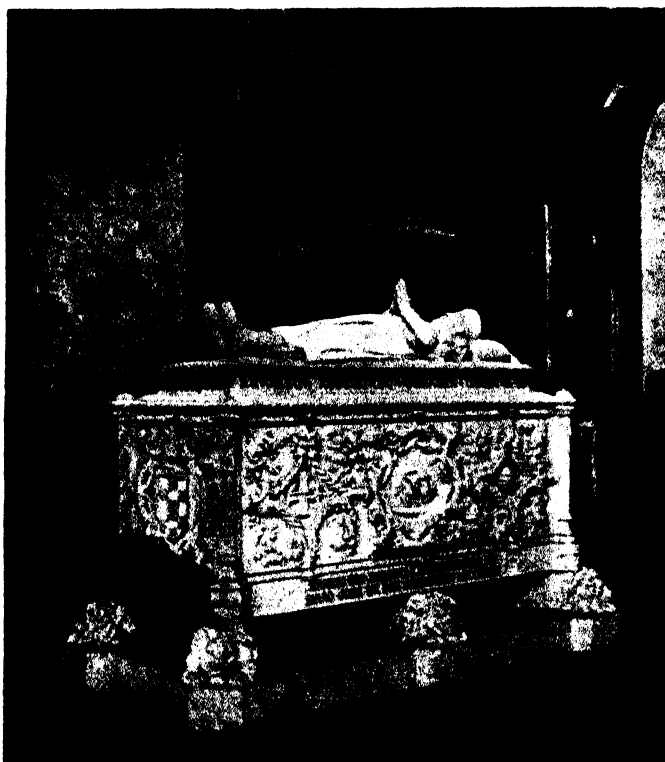
The first open quarrel took place in 1209. Sancho I. refused to pay the tribute to Rome; he also held that the clergy should bear arms when summoned, and should be answerable to the civil courts for offences against the law of the realm. Finally, he even claimed the right to dispose of ecclesiastical property. This was a threefold blow, aimed at the sovereignty of the Pope, the validity of the Canon Law and the secular power which the clergy



JOHN

In the reign of John I. the Portuguese obtained a decisive victory over the Castilians at Aljubarrota in 1385, and a close alliance was formed with England. He died in 1433.

wielded as territorial magnates. The king had overrated his strength. The spiritual weapons of Excommunication and Interdict, and the actual military strength at the command of the bishops, had only to be employed to overawe his supporters. An interdict was imposed by Pope Innocent III. and the king submitted. But the temptation to fill the royal treasury at the expense of the Church proved strong, and for this reason his successor, Alphonso II., died excommunicate in 1223, while a Bull of Deposition ended the reign of Sancho



[Photo by]

[Underwood &amp; Underwood.]

#### TOMB OF VASCO DA GAMA AT BELEM.

The church of Belem in Lisbon marks the spot where Vasco da Gama embarked on his voyage to India in 1497. It contains the tombs of several Portuguese monarchs, and in 1880 the remains of Vasco da Gama himself were brought here and interred in this tomb.

II. in 1248. The Interdict, twice already renewed and remitted, was again imposed during the reign of Affonso III., who had married Donna Beatriz de Guzman while his first wife, Matilda of Boulogne, still lived.

To understand why the king did not again submit, it is necessary to appreciate the change in social organization which had taken place since the death of Affonso Henriques. The ruler was no longer merely the most powerful among a group of great nobles. He had identified himself with national



*Painted specially for this work*

*[By W. E. Wiggfall.]*

#### VASCO DA GAMA ROUNDING THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

In 1497 King Manoel of Portugal fitted out an expedition to discover an ocean route to the East Indies. He selected as its commander one of his best navigators, Vasco da Gama, and in the summer of 1497 the explorers set forth from Lisbon. In November the Cape of Good Hope was reached and rounded, and the expedition proceeded to India. The discovery was one of the most important events in the history of the world.



PRINCE HENRY THE NAVIGATOR.

Prince Henry "the Navigator" was a son of John I., and was born at Oporto in 1394. He gave an immense impetus to Portuguese expansion by fitting out scientific and geographical expeditions.

interests, and had become the head and champion of a whole people. Sancho I. had initiated a number of popular reforms which caused him to be known as the *Povoador*, or "Maker of Towns"; he had granted charters to many cities, and had reconstituted the system of municipal self-government which had existed under Visigothic law; he had encouraged the settlement of Crusading knights, and bestowed large estates on certain municipalities and on the three great military Orders



MANOEL I.

Manoel I., who succeeded to the throne of Portugal in 1495, is known to history as "the Fortunate," because his reign coincided with the discovery of the sea route to India and the foundations of the Portuguese Empire were laid.



THE CHURCH OF BOM JESUS AT BRAGA.

Every good Portuguese makes his pilgrimage to this church. A series of chapels lines the road which leads to the top of a hill on which stands the principal church. Each chapel contains ten to twenty life-size wooden figures, while the church contains a remarkable altarpiece, carved in Rome, the figures being also life-size.



*Painted specially for this work*

#### THE BATTLE OF BUSACO, 1810.

*by E. Anson Dyer*

The French, strongly reinforced under Masséna, had achieved a succession of victories in Portugal, and Wellington, with a force composed of English and Portuguese, was falling back before him. The line of retreat crossed the Sierra de Busaco, and here Wellington took up a very strong position and determined to offer the enemy battle. Masséna, superior in numbers and over-confident, made a direct attack upon the heights on the 27th September, 1810, but, after a stern conflict, the French troops were repulsed.





—the Templars, the Knights of Santiago, and the Knights of Crato. Under Affonso II. the Cortes, or Parliament, was summoned for the first time by royal writ. Its members were the great nobles and ecclesiastics, to whom in 1254 were added representatives of the principal cities. At the historic Cortes of Coimbra in 1261, it was enacted that the Crown could only levy new taxation with the consent of Parliament, and the recognition of this far-reaching constitutional principle ultimately strengthened the Crown. Affonso III. had already gained additional prestige by formally adopting the title of king (*rei*) instead of visitor (*visitador*) or defender (*curador*) of Portugal. He was supported by the Military Orders as well as the Cortes; he had triumphed over the Moors, and shown himself strong enough to hold his own against Leon and Castile. Meanwhile, the clergy had themselves suffered from the struggle between Church and Crown; for the Interdict, which forbade the celebration of Mass and all public worship, all marriages and all burials accompanied by the rites of the Church, had both impoverished them and taught the laity how to dispense with their services. The result was that the fifty years' conflict between Church and Crown ended in 1262, when Pope Urban VI. removed the Interdict and declared the king's marriage with Donna Beatriz to be legal and his son Dom Diniz legitimate.

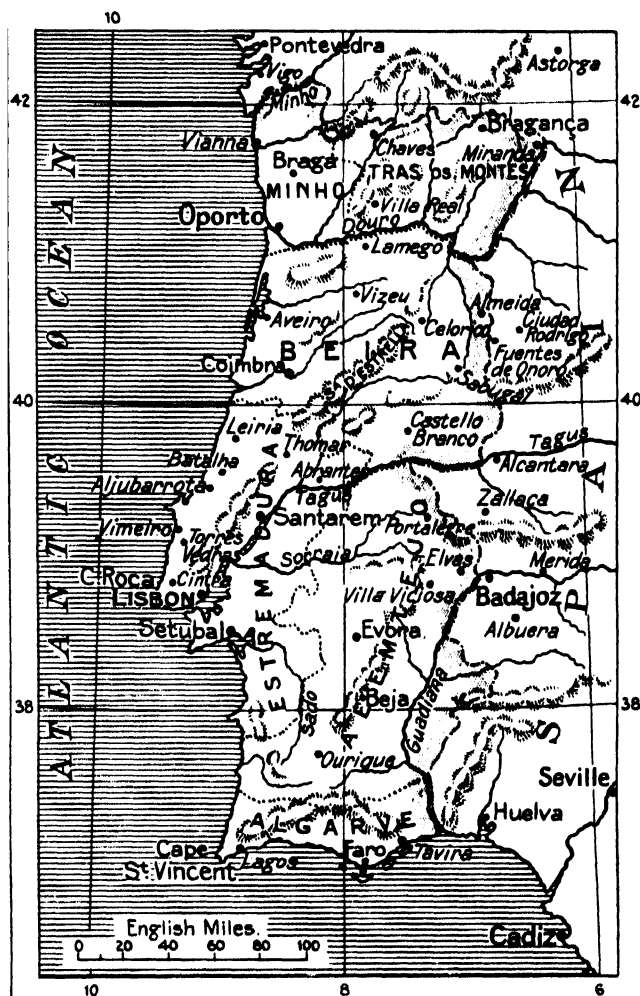
## THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE MONARCHY: 1279-1415

THE accession of Diniz marks the end of the period which had witnessed the expulsion of the Moors and the establishment of a new kingdom comprising the whole of Portugal; it began a new era of economic and constitutional reorganization.

The lands wasted by long wars had first of all to be brought under the plough; other reforms urgently needed were the development of maritime trade, the foundation of an educational system, and the simplification of legal procedure, which was complicated by feudal and ecclesiastical rights.

The independence of the kingdom implied also the adoption of a foreign policy; for whereas Portugal had hitherto been merely fighting for existence, it had now to live side by side with its powerful neighbours, the other Christian and Moorish states of the Peninsula.

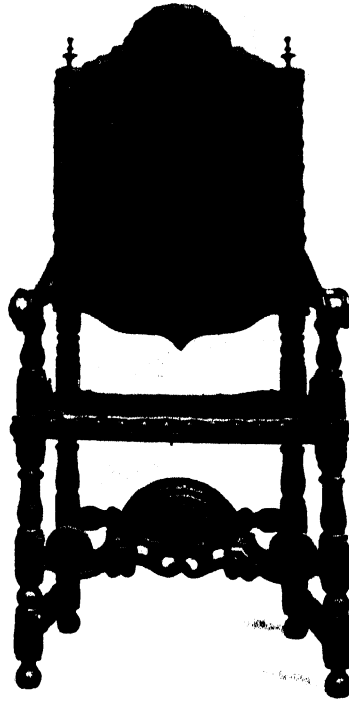
The necessary domestic reforms were initiated by King Diniz, whom the chroniclers style the *Rei Lavrador*, or "Farmer King." He introduced new methods of cultivation and established schools in which agriculture was taught. Discerning in what direction the future of the nation would tend, he arranged a commercial treaty with England (1294), and summoned from Genoa a skilled navigator named Emmanuele di Pezagna to command his navy. In 1290 he founded a national university at Coimbra. Like his father, he was a poet and a patron of letters; indeed, many of the most renowned



With Portugal are included the Azores and Madeira Islands in the Atlantic. There are rich colonies in East and West Africa at Mozambique and Portuguese Guinea, and also settlements at Goa and Macao. Portugal reached the height of its fame during the imperial rule of Manoel I.

troubadours of the day flocked to his Court, where Provençal and Portuguese vied with one another in the composition of love-songs and romances of adventure, war and chivalry. He continued the royal policy of showing favour to the Military Orders, and when Pope Clement V. had denounced the Templars for heresy and many worse crimes, Diniz reconstituted the Portuguese branch of the Order under the name of the Knights of Christ.

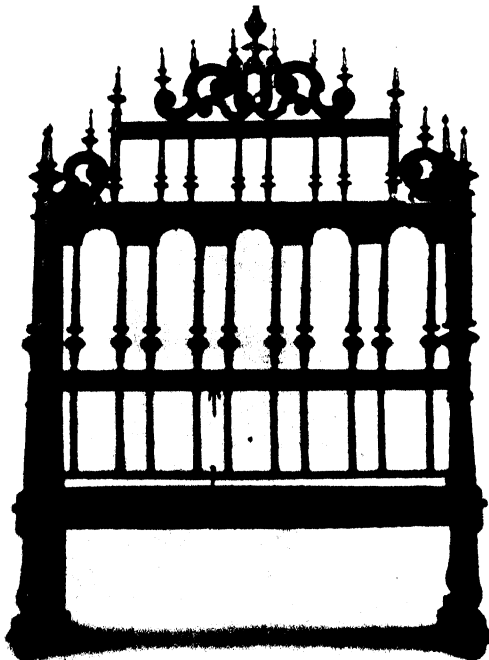
In its relations with Castile, now the most important neighbouring state, the Portuguese Crown throughout the period under review was swayed alternately by national interests and by dynastic ambition. Diniz began by fighting Ferdinand IV. of Castile, and then negotiated an alliance with him, which was cemented by the marriage of



An armchair made of chestnut wood with seat and back of embossed leather. The frame is decorated with large gilt-headed nails. (Seventeenth century.)

Ferdinand himself to Constance, daughter of Diniz, while the Portuguese Crown Prince married Ferdinand's daughter Beatriz. Thus began a long series of intermarriages between the royal houses of Portugal, Castile and Aragon. Affonso IV., who succeeded Diniz, found himself alternately at war with the Castilians and fighting for them against the Moors, whom he signally defeated in Southern Spain.

His reign was rendered memorable by the tragic fate of Inez de Castro, an event of slight historic importance, but famous because it forms the theme of one of the most moving passages in Camoens's great epic, the "Lusiads." Inez, a Galician girl of noble ancestry, had been educated at the Court of the Duke of Peñafiel, side by side with Constance, the Duke's



*By permission of*

A bedstead made of rosewood ornamented with gilt brass. The tester of the balustrade is of pedimental open-work. (Seventeenth century.)



*[The Victoria and Albert Museum.]*

A cabinet and stand. Cedar wood, inlaid with ebony and ivory in pattern of scroll foliage and birds. Probably made at Goa.



THE ENTRANCE TO THE CONVENT OF ST. JERONIMO, BELEM.

The magnificent monastery at Belem was founded in 1499 to commemorate the discovery of the sea-route to India by Vasco da Gama. The opening up of the East proved a great stimulus to Portuguese art and architecture. Characteristics of Oriental architecture were blended with those of the Western Renaissance, and combined they formed what is known as Manoeline architecture, after Manoel I. The Hieronymites, a congregation of hermits for whom the convent was built, exercised great influence at the Portuguese Court, and on going to Portuguese America they took an active part in civilizing the Indians.

daughter and her own cousin. In 1341 Constance was married to Dom Pedro, the Portuguese Crown Prince, and Inez accompanied her to Coimbra. Here the young bridegroom became enamoured of her. It was an age in which the influence of the Moors had made polygamy common—in fact, though not



THE REREDOS, THE CHURCH OF BOM JESUS, GOA.

The church of Bom Jesus, which is a fine example of Renaissance architecture, was built by the Jesuits between 1594 and 1603. Owing to the magnificence of its ecclesiastical buildings and the importance of the archbishop, as Primate of the East, the city was known as "Rome in India." It reached the height of prosperity and fame at the end of the sixteenth century.

Dom Pedro at once declared war upon his father, and only laid down his arms upon receiving a large share of the royal authority. When he became king his first act was to take vengeance for Inez. Two of the assassins were tortured to death before his eyes; but Diogo Pacheco escaped through the good offices of a beggar whom he had once befriended. It is recorded—though the truth of the tale cannot be definitely established—that the body of Inez was disinterred and solemnly crowned. Side by side with

in name—among the upper classes both of Spain and Portugal, and the mere fact that Inez became the mistress of Dom Pedro during the lifetime of Constance would by itself have excited little resentment. Constance died in 1345, and nine years later, according to Dom Pedro's own assurance, he married Inez. But by this time the growing power of the Castro family had excited bitter jealousy among their rivals, and three Portuguese nobles, Alvaro Gonzales, Pedro Coelho and Diogo Pacheco, conspired to persuade the king that his son had planned to dethrone him with the aid of the Castros. Affonso and the three conspirators went by night to the Crown Prince's palace at Coimbra; the tears and the beauty of Inez turned the aged king from his purpose, and he determined to spare her; but the men who accompanied him willed otherwise. They stabbed the unfortunate princess to death, and hastily buried her in a neighbouring church.

the king the dead body was enthroned in royal robes, while the nobles of Portugal saluted it as queen, and swore allegiance as they kissed the shrivelled hand of the corpse. Inez was then buried with royal honours in a magnificent marble tomb in the convent at Alcobaça. This tomb was violated in 1810 by Napoleon's troops, who cut away the long golden hair which still retained something of its beauty after the passing of so many centuries. Dom Pedro, who died in 1367, was buried beside Inez. He had ruled with an iron hand, curbing the power of the nobles

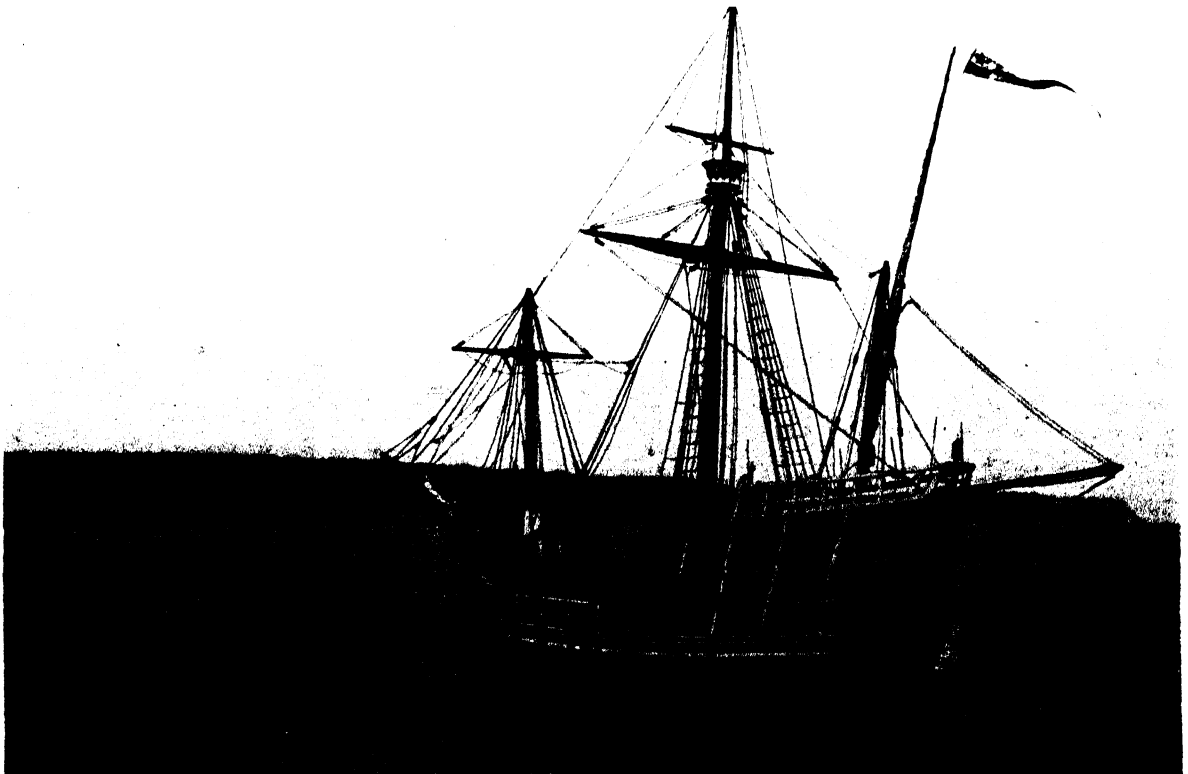


VASCO DA GAMA (1469-1525).

Vasco da Gama was the daring navigator selected by Manoel I. to undertake a voyage to India by way of the Cape. He was ennobled for the success of his mission, and later founded the Portuguese colony of Mozambique. He died at Cochin in 1525.

and the Church, but maintaining friendly relations with England, where Edward III. issued (1352) a proclamation in favour of the Portuguese who came to trade with the merchants of the City of London.

Up to the death of Pedro I. the growth of Portuguese power had been continuous. A temporary reaction followed owing to the shifting policy of Ferdinand, who became king in 1367. Ferdinand claimed the throne of Castile, and in alliance with the Moors and Aragonese attacked his successful rival, Henry II. The intervention of the Pope led to



THE CARAVEL "PINTA."

It was in ships of the size and type of the "Pinta" and "Nina" that the great navigators of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries made their discoveries. That they survived a voyage across the ocean seems wonderful, but consummate skill in seamanship, coupled with a close observation of the seasons, made voyaging prosperous when the size of their ships was a handicap.



FERDINAND MAGELLAN.

Magellan was born at Sabrosa in 1480. He left the Portuguese service and entered that of Spain, and it was under the Spanish flag that he rounded Cape Horn and discovered the Philippine Islands, where he was murdered in 1521.

fled, to die in a convent, and in 1385 the Cortes met at Coimbra and chose John of Aviz as King.

The choice was a wise one, for both as statesman and soldier John I. ranks high among mediæval sovereigns. The mainstay of his power abroad he rightly judged to be the English alliance, which was confirmed by his marriage to Philippa of Lancaster, daughter of John of Gaunt, and extended by the Treaty of Windsor in 1386.

With the aid of a body of English archers he routed the Castilians at Aljubarrota, an overwhelming victory commemorated by the foundation of the superb Convent of Batalha, one of the noblest examples of mediæval architecture still surviving in Portugal. A second victory was won at Valverde by the "Holy

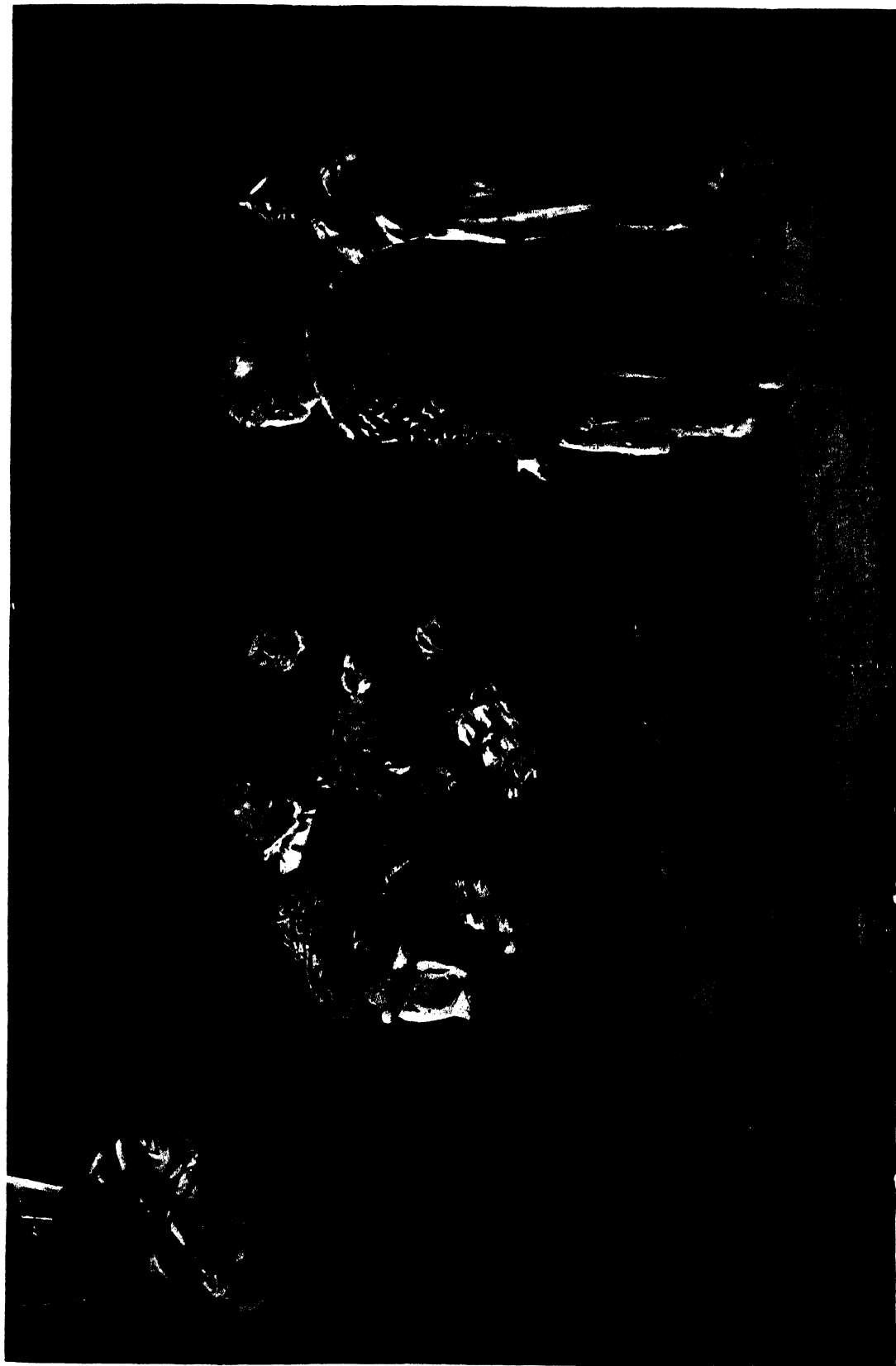
a compromise, by which Ferdinand agreed to abandon his claims and to marry Henry II.'s daughter. This agreement he broke, eventually marrying his mistress, Leonora de Telles, a woman of great ambition and ability. Henry II. retaliated by an invasion of Portugal, and Ferdinand then appealed to John of Gaunt, who was also a claimant to the throne of Castile.

A new alliance between England and Portugal was arranged, and strong English forces were twice sent to aid the Portuguese against Castile, despite the disloyalty of Ferdinand, who made peace without the consent of his allies, and repudiated an agreement by which his daughter was to marry Prince Edward of England. Ferdinand died in 1383, and Leonora became regent; but her harsh rule soon estranged the Portuguese nobility, who rose in revolt, choosing as their leader John, Grand Master of the Knights of Aviz, and natural son of Pedro I. Leonora appealed to Castile; the Spaniards laid siege to Lisbon, but were compelled to retire after two severe defeats had been inflicted on them by the Constable of Portugal, Nun' Alvares Pereira (called "the Holy Constable"). Leonora



THE CARAVEL "NINA."

The "Nina" was rigged differently from the "Pinta," and she carried the long lateen sails so familiar on the coasts of Spain and Portugal. The "Pinta" was no more than one hundred tons, whilst the "Nina" was even less, being eighty tons burthen.



*Painted specially for this work*

#### THOMÉ DE SOUSA, FIRST GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF BRAZIL.

Thomé de Sousa was the first representative of Portuguese authority in Brazil. He founded the city of San Salvador in June, 1549, which under his successful government became a prosperous city. About this time the Jesuits distinguished themselves, and by their zeal did more for Portuguese progress in Brazil than any force of arms, proving themselves of considerable aid to the governor-general in his administration of Bahia. De Sousa is depicted listening to the opinions of his Jesuit advisers in the matter of a dispute between a Portuguese settler and a native of Brazil.

*[By M. Doreton, R.B.A., N.B.A.]*





THE TOMB OF ST. FRANCIS XAVIER AT GOA.

This magnificent shrine and tomb is contained in the famous church of Bom Jesus, which to-day has rather supplanted Goa Cathedral as a place of public worship owing to the importance of this tomb. Francisco de Xavier was a celebrated Jesuit saint. Born about 1506, he devoted his life to missionary work, using Goa as his headquarters, from where he made many and various expeditions to all parts of the world. He died at the comparatively early age of forty-six owing to a severe attack of fever caught in China, and his body was conveyed to Goa, where his remains are now enshrined.

detachment of English soldiers. The attack succeeded, and by the seizure of Ceuta the foundation-stone of the Portuguese empire was laid.

#### THE PORTUGUESE EMPIRE: 1415-1580

IN the Middle Ages the Atlantic was a region unknown, and therefore terrible to the imagination of even the boldest navigator. Strange shapes had been seen by those who ventured too far from the friendly shelter of the coast: sirens, whose singing lured men to steer on to the cruel rocks; monsters that devoured ships whole; vast whirlpools; sea-unicorns that could transfix three caravels at a blow.

It was Prince Henry the Navigator, Grand Master of the Order of Christ, who first promoted the systematic exploration of the Atlantic, down the West Coast of Africa. From Sagres, the town which he had founded in Southern Portugal as a base, he planned and organized many a voyage of discovery; he planted colonies in Madeira and the Azores, where he established a new trade in wine and sugar; his captains brought home gold, ivory and slaves from the coast of Guinea. The underlying motives of his work were partly commercial, partly scientific, partly religious; for Prince Henry was at heart a Crusader. He desired above all else to find the mythical Western Nile, which was believed to issue into the Atlantic, and by following its course to reach the lands of Prester John, the Christian ruler of Abyssinia, in whose marvellous power the learned of Europe still implicitly believed. With the aid of Prester John a new and successful Crusade might be undertaken, to break the power of the Turks, who were even then

Constable," again with the aid of strong English reinforcements, and in 1411, after a long truce, the war with Castile came to an end. The King had been made a Knight of the Garter by Henry IV., and his relations with the English Court were of the most cordial character. His caravels, laden with fruit, wine, oil, wax and leather stamped with decorative Moorish designs, were well known to the dwellers by Thames-side; and with traffic inland barred by the hostility of Castile, it became more and more apparent that Portuguese commerce must expand westward across the sea. The great navigable rivers, excellent harbours, teeming fisheries and long coast-line of the kingdom had encouraged the growth of a population of skilful and hardy mariners, who had learned the science of navigation from Italy and from the Moors. The moment had come when Portugal was to set forth upon the great adventure which was to make the flag of the House of Aviz for a time supreme on every ocean. The Crusading spirit, kept alive by the Military Orders, urged the nation first of all to put its fortune to the test by an expedition against the Moors. In 1415 a strong fleet commanded by John I. set sail for Ceuta in Morocco. On board were the king's three sons, Edward, Pedro and Henry—the famous "Prince Henry the Navigator"—together with a

threatening Eastern Europe, and to liberate the Holy Land from the domination of Islam. When Prince Henry died in 1460, the exploration of West Africa had proceeded almost as far as Sierra Leone. Under Affonso V. (the African) the Gulf of Guinea was explored as far as Cape St. Catherine, and three expeditions were sent against the Moors, resulting in the occupation of Arzila and Tangier. In the reign of John II. Diogo Cam discovered the mouth of the river Congo, and Bartholomew Dias doubled the Cape of Good Hope, thus proving that it was possible to reach India by sea. The discovery of America by Columbus now rendered necessary a delimitation of the Spanish from the Portuguese Empire. Two Bulls were issued by Pope Alexander VI., which practically gave the eastern half of the unknown or recently discovered world to Portugal and the western to Spain. This decision was explained and amplified by the Treaty of Tordesillas concluded between the two kingdoms in 1494. Four years later Vasco da Gama completed the work of Dias by voyaging to the West Coast of India and returning with a rich cargo of spices.

Before discussing the results of this momentous voyage, it is necessary to revert for a moment to the internal history of Portugal.

All the Portuguese kings of the fifteenth century were lovers of letters. King Edward collected a library of the ancient classics, and wrote an ethical treatise, "The Loyal Counsellor," and an extraordinarily interesting book on horsemanship. His brother, Dom Pedro, who acted as regent during the minority of Affonso V., also wrote a treatise on virtuous conduct, caused translations to be made from Latin authors, and brought home from Venice a manuscript of Marco Polo's travels. Even the warrior, Affonso V., confesses, in a letter to the royal chronicler Azarara, that the pen is mightier than the sword.



*Painted specially for this work*

[By J. H. Valda.]

## DEFEAT AND DEATH OF SEBASTIAN I. AT THE BATTLE OF ALCAZAR.

Sebastian was successful in driving the Moors from his country, Portugal, but while endeavouring to subdue them still further was killed and his army annihilated at Alcazar in 1578. In spite of some obscurity as to his real fate, little doubt can be entertained that the king fell on the field of battle, for after having had three horses killed under him, he was seen long after the defeat of his army fighting against a host of enemies.



SEBASTIAN I.

Sebastian I. (1554-1578) became King of Portugal in 1557, but during his minority his relatives governed for him. He was educated by the Jesuits and grew up a mystic and fanatic, whose highest ambition was to expel the Moors from his country, which he succeeded in doing, however, at the cost of his life.

At the same time, there was a fierce, barbaric strain in Portuguese civilization, which is well illustrated by the story of Inez de Castro, and by the treatment which John II. (the Perfect) meted out to certain of his nobles. The grants of land made by former kings had, he said, left the Crown little save "the high roads of Portu-

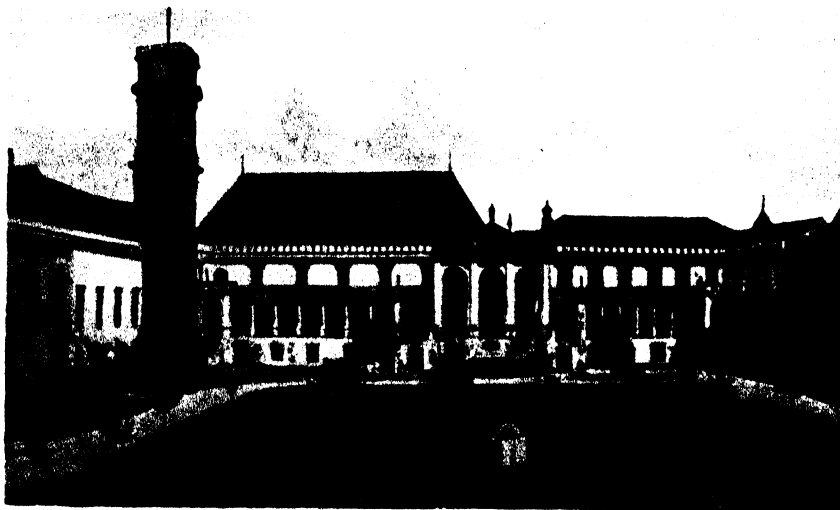


CAMOENS.

Luiz de Camoens (1524-1580) was the national poet of Portugal and the author of many poems, the best known of which are the "Lusiads." He led an adventurous and somewhat restless existence, losing an eye at Ceuta while soldiering. He died poor and obscure in a public hospital.

gal"; the heads of the aristocracy were almost independent provincial sovereigns, with power of life and death over their tenants. At the Cortes of Evora in 1481, John II. secured the enactment of the law giving the right of jurisdiction in feudal domains to royal judges. An attempt to resist this encroachment was ruthlessly avenged. The Duke of Braganza was beheaded; the king stabbed to death his own brother-in-law, Ferdinand, Duke of Vizeu, and many other nobles were put to death.

In the year 1500 King Manoel I. assumed the resounding title, "Lord of the Conquest, Navigation and Commerce of India, Ethiopia, Arabia and Persia," and the achievements of his people went far to justify the claim. Spurred on by missionary ardour and commercial enterprise—eager at once to convert the Mahomedan and heathen world to Christianity and to monopolize the seaborne trade of the Orient, more especially the lucrative spice-trade which had hitherto reached Europe chiefly through Venice—they carried on their world-wide task of exploration, conquest



UNIVERSITY OF COIMBRA.

Coimbra owes its importance to the presence of a fine University, which, however, was originally founded at Lisbon in 1291; after its transference to Coimbra in 1306, the University was again removed to Lisbon, and was finally established in its present position in 1527. The five faculties comprise a wide range of learning, and there are more than 1,300 students.

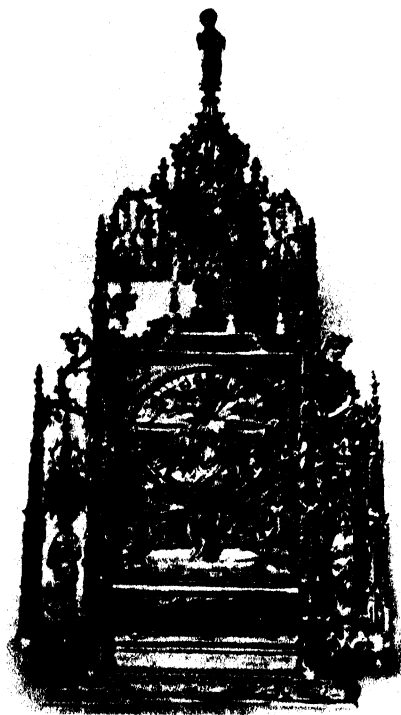


*Painted specially for this work*

#### THE MURDER OF THE SPANISH MINISTER BY THE PORTUGUESE REVOLUTIONARIES, 1640.

[By M. Doraon, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

The origin of this revolution was the misgovernment of Portugal by the dissolute and irascible Duke d'Olivarez, a favourite of Philip IV. of Spain. A conspiracy was formed amongst the nobles of Portugal to place the Duke of Braganza upon the throne, and the blow was struck at Lisbon. The Spanish guard was cut down, the conspirators entered the palace, and burst into the apartment of Miguel de Vasconcellos, who was particularly hated for his arrogance. The secretary was dragged from his hiding-place, a cupboard, and ruthlessly shot.



A silver tablet, or panel, called a Pax. Kissed by the priests when celebrating Mass. Portuguese, dating from the fifteenth century. (*Victoria and Albert Museum.*)

and colonization with an energy rarely equalled. The brothers Corte-Real voyaged as far as Greenland; Pedro Alvares Cabral reached Brazil, and claimed it for the Portuguese Crown; Tristan da Cunha discovered the remote Atlantic archipelago which still bears his name; other navigators reached the shores of Mauritius, Madagascar and the islands of the Malay Archi-



An octagonal dish of beaten and chased silver, the border of which is ornamented with foliage and animals. In the centre is a European figure mounted on a tiger. Indo-Portuguese, seventeenth century. (*Victoria and Albert Museum.*)

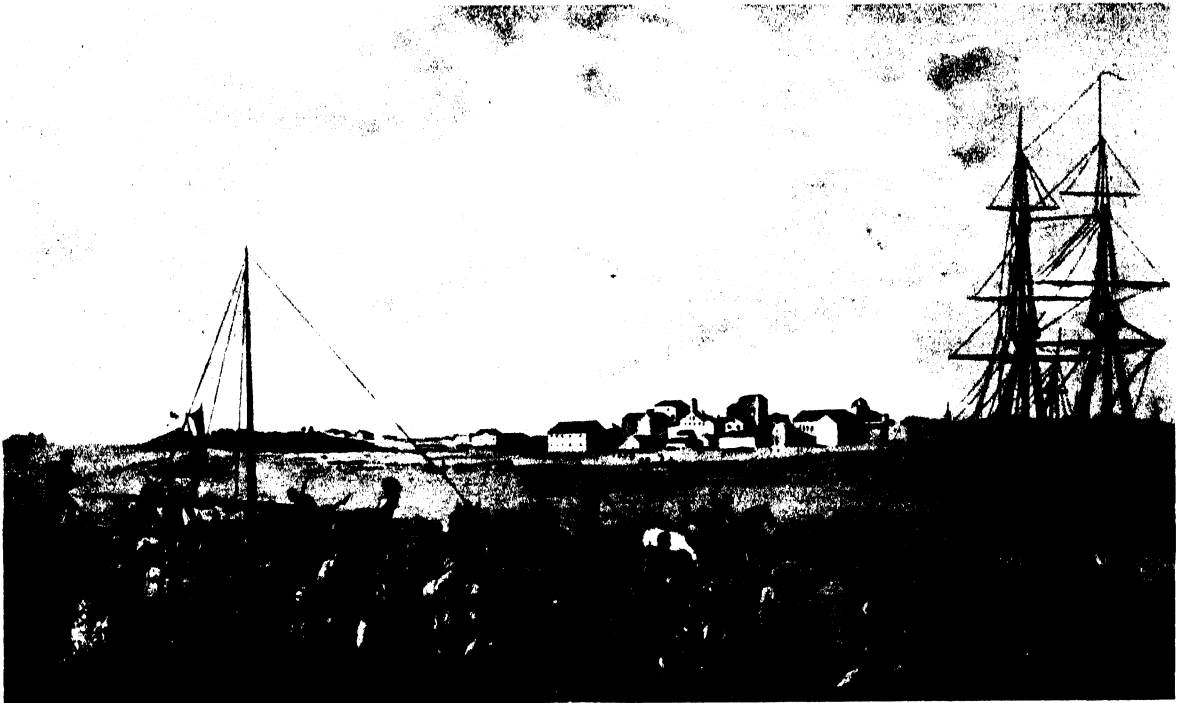
pelago. The ships of Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese, though he sailed under the Spanish flag, were the first to sail round the world. Francis Xavier, perhaps the greatest missionary of the age, preached Christianity in Japan. Meanwhile Portugal had seized the Arab settlements on the East Coast of Africa; Portuguese envoys had penetrated to Abyssinia, Siam and China; and the first European empire in Asia had been founded on the West Coast of India, by Dom Francisco de Almeida and Affonso de Albuquerque. Of these two remarkable men, Almeida established Portuguese sea-power on a firm basis by defeating the Turkish navy in the Indian Ocean; Albuquerque provided permanent strategic bases on land, by capturing Goa, the future capital of Portuguese India; Malacca, which com-



Silver necklace and pendant set with diamonds, foiled topazes, emeralds, rubies and crystals, the coloured stones being set in gold. Portuguese, late seventeenth or early eighteenth century. (*Victoria and Albert Museum.*)

A pair of earrings of gold filigree-work set with paste emeralds and rubies. Portuguese, eighteenth century. (*Victoria and Albert Museum.*)

manded the great trade-routes between the Indian Ocean and the China and Malay Seas ; and Ormuz, the island fortress dominating the entrance to the Persian Gulf, through which the spice-ships passed to the head of the principal caravan-routes. Thus by the middle of the sixteenth century Portugal had acquired a chain of scattered possessions extending along the coasts of Brazil, West and East Africa, the Persian Gulf, India, Ceylon, Indo-China and the Malay Archipelago. The work of colonization was accompanied by many splendid feats of arms, but victory was rendered easier by the fact that the Portuguese never penetrated far inland. They therefore escaped conflict with the more powerful states of India and China, while at sea their artillery and superior maritime science gave them an advantage over all opponents. In Europe, the Portuguese enjoyed an almost complete monopoly of the sale of oriental and tropical products. With the sudden enrichment of the kingdom came a remarkable outburst of literary and artistic activity. Palaces, fortresses and cathedrals were built in a new archi-



BRITISH ARMY LANDING AT MONDEGO BAY, 1808.

The landing of an English force under Sir Arthur Wellesley took place at Mondego Bay on 1st of August, 1808, as a result of the representations made to Great Britain by the Spanish and Portuguese Governments, whose countries had been invaded by the French armies of Napoleon. The Portuguese, under the command of their own leaders, co-operated successfully with the English under Wellesley throughout the entire campaign.

tectural style, the Manueline, in which Indian and African decoration was harmonized with Gothic and Renaissance. Portuguese literature reached its zenith in the lyrics of Camoens, and in his great national epic, the "Lusiads," but his was only the first among many famous names : Gil Vicente, the dramatist ; Damião de Goes, the humanist and friend of Erasmus ; men of science such as Pedro Nunes, the astronomer, and his more famous pupil, João de Castro, Viceroy of India, whose diary of a voyage through the Red Sea breathes the very spirit of scientific research ; Garcia da Orta, who spent his life in studying the drugs and simples of the East, and many others. A distinctive school of painting came into being, under the leadership of Vasco Fernandes of Vizeu, and even the minor decorative arts and handicrafts derived fresh inspiration from contact with the East. In the Portuguese capital, the blending of oriental splendour with Renaissance culture made social life more brilliant than ever, and the typical Portuguese gentleman, the fidalgo, had few rivals in versatility of accomplishment. He could compose a sonnet, govern a province, navigate a ship, command an army with equal ability and ease.

But even before 1550 many forces were at work to bring the Portuguese empire to a downfall as dramatic as its sudden rise.

The administrative system was radically unsound. Officials were underpaid, but amassed huge fortunes out of the illicit profits they gained. The competition for administrative office was naturally keen, and the favoured applicant more often owed his promotion to purchase than to merit.

The financial system was equally faulty. Vast expenditure was incurred on account of war and missions, and could only be met by the spoils of further conquest or by subsidies from the royal treasury. This led to systematic debasement of the coinage both in Portugal and in India.

The commercial system was based on a wrong economic theory. No attempt was made to utilize the enormous imports of gold and silver for the creation of new and productive industries. The most



THE PASSAGE OF THE DOURO, 1809.

Wellesley moved towards the Douro on the 5th of May, 1809, and drove back the French. Soult, who had destroyed the bridges and captured all the boats, believed that the English would cross at the mouth of the Douro. However, Wellesley procured four barges and landed his men at a point of the river hidden from the enemy by a wood.

profitable branches of commerce, notably the pepper trade, were royal monopolies, sometimes directly exercised, sometimes leased to the highest bidder or granted to favourites.

The drain of men for war and colonization resulted in the depopulation of a large part of Portugal. As early as 1505 it was necessary to man one of Almeida's ships with a crew of yokels so ignorant of maritime affairs that they could not distinguish port from starboard; it is recorded that the commander tied a bundle of onions to one side of the vessel, a bundle of garlic to another, and directed navigation by bidding his steersman "onion the helm" or "garlic the helm," as need arose. So serious was the dearth of men that the total population decreased by fully fifty per cent. in the sixteenth century—from two millions to one. Slaves were imported in vast numbers, with disastrous social and economic results. The Portuguese learned to despise manual labour; but they intermarried freely with the Africans and Indians, and learned to adopt Asiatic dress, customs and modes of thought. A profound change was thus wrought in the whole character and physique of the race.



*From the painting]*

#### THE CAPTURE OF OPORTO BY MARSHAL SOULT. 1809.

*[By G. Bedune. ]*

On March 29th the French, under Soult, took Oporto by storm and made the town their headquarters. The picture shows Soult being received by a deputation of wounded Portuguese officers, whose submission he is accepting, whilst the inhabitants on all sides are pleading for mercy at the hands of the victorious soldiers. Oporto marked the limit of Soult's victorious advance, as the Portuguese rallied under the leadership of one of their own generals and fully engaged the attention of Marshal Ney, who on this account could not afford any support to his colleague.





EVACUATION OF POMBAL BY MASSENA, 1811.

On March 5th, 1811, Masséna began his general retreat before the victorious Allies under Wellington. The French troops, although in serious distress through want of food and lack of general supplies, did not give way without fighting many rearguard actions. One of these took place at the town of Pombal, the evacuation of which by the defeated French on the 10th of March is depicted.

The growing power and fanaticism of the Church, especially during the reign of John III., led to many evils, notably to the persecution and expulsion of the Jews, who were then the invaluable middle-class of Portugal—a peaceful and industrious population of traders and shopkeepers. The Inquisition held its first *auto da fé* in Lisbon in 1540. At home, it poisoned social life; its spies and informers were everywhere; and much havoc was wrought by its activities as a trading and land-owning corporation which could bring unlimited pressure to bear on any competitor. Abroad, it involved the Empire in never-ending insurrections and wars with the races whose religion it vainly strove to crush.

Finally, in 1555 the Jesuits obtained almost complete control of national education; they kept the key of the Portuguese intelligence and conscience, while the rigid ecclesiastical censorship of all printed matter stifled originality and scientific thought. The Cortes was no longer summoned, and under the obstinate, weak-minded, ascetic King Sebastian, whose only positive virtue was physical courage, the government of Portugal became “a theocracy disguised as absolute monarchy.” A Crusader born some centuries too late, Sebastian was persuaded to undertake a campaign of conquest in Morocco; at Al-Kasr al Kebir his army was surrounded and cut to pieces, and with him perished for a time the independence of Portugal. So stunning was the blow that the Portuguese people could not face the reality; even in the nineteenth century there were many who still cherished the belief that Sebastian was not dead, but would return in his own good time to restore the glories of their fallen empire.

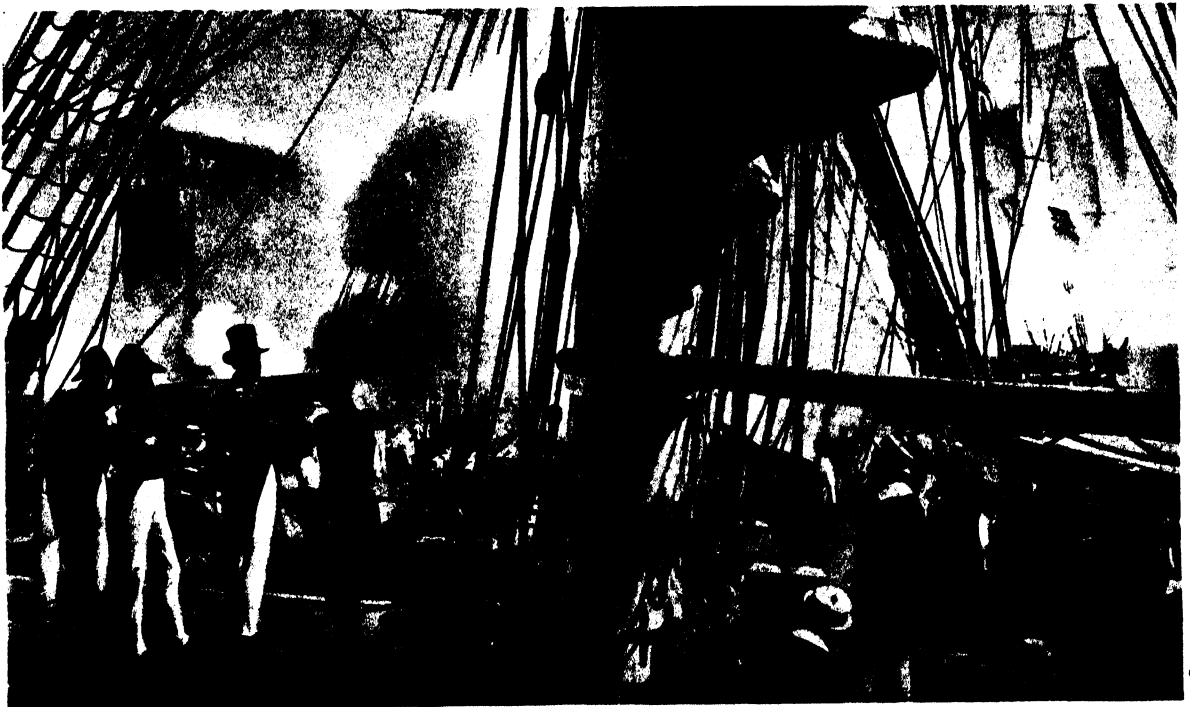
#### THE SIXTY YEARS' CAPTIVITY AND THE RESTORATION: 1580-1755

SEBASTIAN was succeeded by his uncle, the aged Cardinal Prince Henry, whose death in January, 1581, left the throne vacant, as the disaster of Al-Kasr had already left the nation defenceless. Without a leader or an army, Portugal could not hope to maintain its liberties. Among the rival princes who laid claim to the Crown, Philip II. of Spain was the most powerful, and he speedily made good his pretensions

by a successful invasion. Thus began the "sixty years' captivity," in which Portugal was ruled by Spanish kings. It is true that Philip II. had signed a compact at Thomar, pledging himself to govern Portugal and its empire as a separate state, to summon the Cortes regularly, and in all matters touching Portuguese interests to act on the advice of Portuguese Privy Councillors. But these pledges were systematically violated, and the destruction of Spanish supremacy at sea exposed the coasts, the commerce and the colonies of Portugal to attack from the British and Dutch fleets. In 1640 an intolerable situation was ended by a national rising ; the Spaniards were expelled and the Duke of Braganza became king, a choice ratified by the Cortes in 1641.

During the twenty-eight years of war with Spain which followed, Portugal was compelled to seek for foreign support, and therefore to conclude alliances with France and England. The marriage of Catherine of Braganza to Charles II. of England was celebrated in 1663, Portugal ceding Tangier and Bombay as part of the princess's dowry. Soon afterwards the successive defeats inflicted on the Spaniards at Evora, Ciudad Rodrigo, Montes Claros and Villa Viçosa, induced that country to conclude peace and to recognize the independence of Portugal in 1668. This result was largely due to the reorganization of the Portuguese army by the French Marshal Schomberg, to the presence of English reinforcements, and to the prudent administration of the Count of Castello Melhor.

There followed a period of remarkable economic development, due to the discovery of gold and diamonds in Brazil, and to the Methuen Treaty of 1703, which gave Portuguese wines preference in the English market, in return for a similar concession in favour of English textiles. Neither event ultimately increased the prosperity of the nation. The Methuen Treaty, though it brought enormous profits to the wine and cork merchants, made Portugal a commercial satellite of England for one hundred and fifty years. The treasures of Brazil were dissipated first of all in the long-drawn, barren campaigns, lasting from 1704 to 1715, which were the outcome of Portuguese intervention in the War of the Spanish Succession. Finally, in the reign of John V. (1715-1750) the Crown once more permitted its policy to be directed and its revenues spent by the Church. Not content with lending or giving enormous sums to the Vatican,



*From the painting]*

*[By Horace Vernet*

## THE FRENCH FLEET FORCING THE ENTRANCE TO THE TAGUS, 1831.

During the Miguelite Wars which occurred in Spain between 1826 and 1834 a series of outrages on French subjects were committed. By way of retaliation a French squadron forced the entrance to the Tagus in July, 1831, and seized Dom Miguel's fleet, which was lying in the river.

and sending a naval contingent to join in a "Crusade" against the Turks, which helped to win the engagement off Cape Matapan, John V. squandered untold sums on building churches and endowing new ecclesiastical offices. His convent palace at Mafra cost four million pounds; the decoration of one small chapel in the Cathedral of San Roque, two hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds. For these acts of devotion he received the title of *Fidelissimus*, and until the end of the monarchy each successive King of Portugal was henceforth styled "His Most Faithful Majesty." The Archbishop of Lisbon was granted the rank of Cardinal *ex officio*; he became the head of a Sacred College of twenty-four prelates, who were privileged to wear the scarlet robes of cardinals, while the Patriarch himself wore vestments comparable only to those of the Supreme Pontiff.



*Painted specially for this work*

QUEEN MARIA ABJURES HER OATH AT BELEM, 1836.

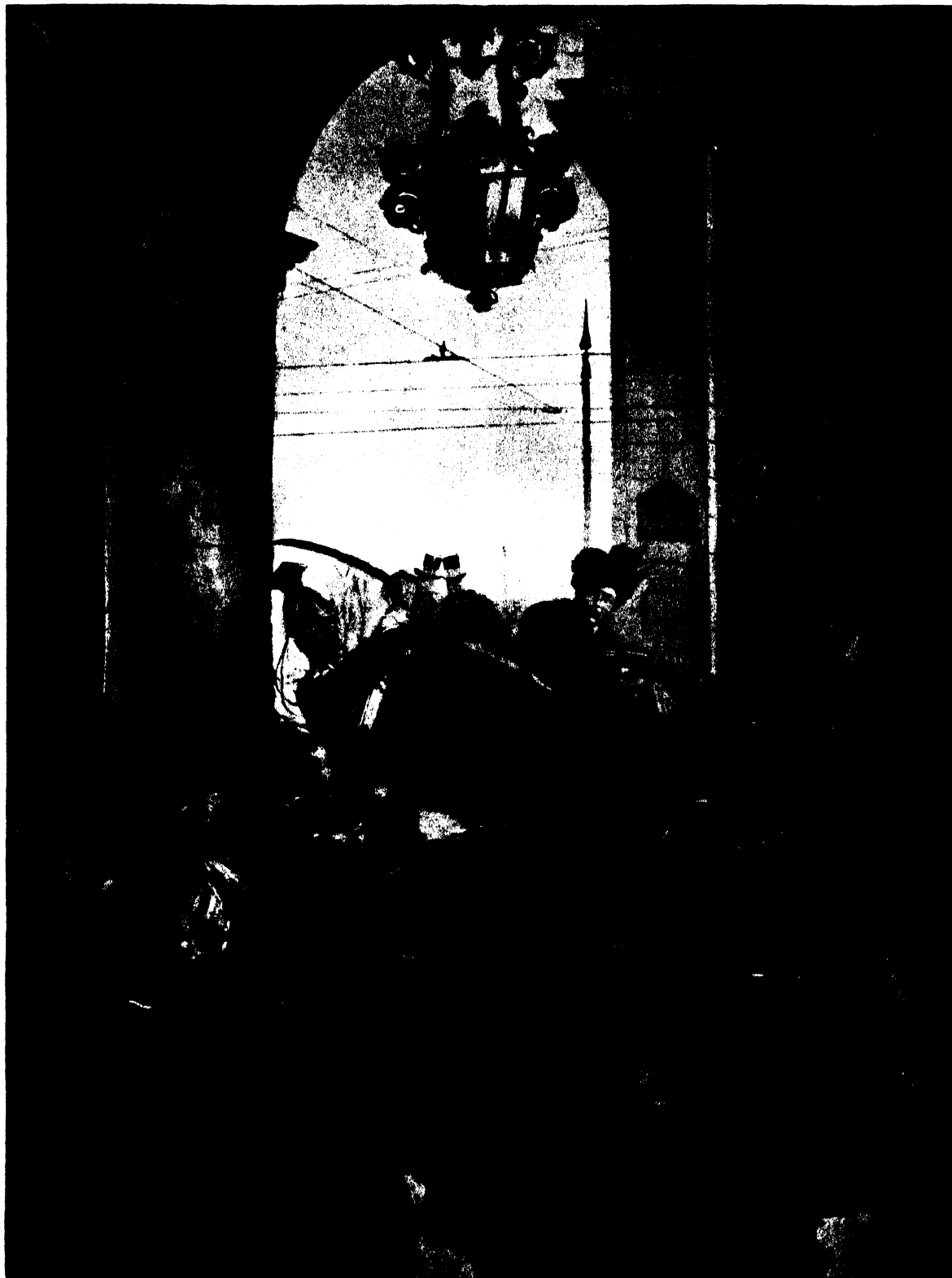
[By J. H. Valda.]

Maria II. ascended the throne in 1834. Both she and her consort Ferdinand were entire strangers to Portugal and could exercise little or no control over the turbulent factions whose intrigues made orderly government impossible. On November 3rd, 1836, the Queen retired secretly to her palace at Belem. There she rallied the army and the court party around her, and abjured the oath which the revolutionists had forced her to take in the previous month.

Portugal was decadent. The nobles had become courtiers. The Cortes was never summoned between 1697 and 1827. In domestic affairs priests governed. In diplomacy and in commerce the kingdom was dependent on France and England. The Inquisition and the Censorship had rotted the moral and intellectual fibre of the ruling classes. It seemed as though some tremendous catastrophe were needed to awaken and reanimate the Portuguese people. The catastrophe happened. The great Lisbon earthquake of 1755, which laid half the capital in ruins, also shook the whole fabric of Portuguese society to its foundations. And with the new Lisbon began a new era.

#### THE POMBALINE REFORMS AND THE NAPOLEONIC WARS: 1755-1815

AT the time of the Lisbon earthquake the chief Minister of State was Sebastião José de Carvalho e Mello, Marquess of Pombal. The firmness and energy which he displayed in this national crisis



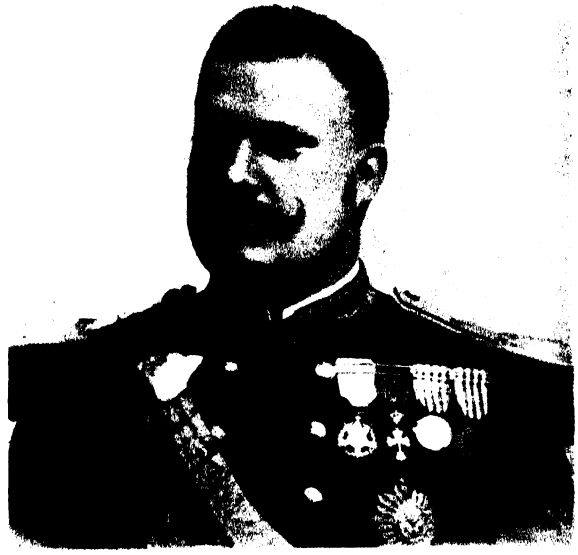
#### THE ASSASSINATION OF THE KING AND CROWN PRINCE OF PORTUGAL, 1908.

Just as the royal carriage was turning off the Praça do Commercio into the Rua do Arsenal a man jumped on to the step and fired twice with a revolver at the King, and then shot himself. Another man, Manuel Buica, fired a carbine from under the arcade of the Town Hall, killing the Crown Prince. The police immediately turned upon Buica and shot him. The Queen tried to beat back the assassin from the carriage steps, and also shielded Prince Manoel with her body.



CROWN PRINCE OF PORTUGAL.

Luiz, Duke of Braganza, the elder son of Carlos I. of Portugal, was born in 1887. This unfortunate young prince was assassinated in 1908 while driving with his father in the streets of Lisbon.



CARLOS I. OF PORTUGAL.

Dom Carlos I. (1863-1908) married Marie Amélie, daughter of Philippe, Duc d'Orléans, and succeeded to the throne in 1889. Owing to some attempted constitutional reforms he was assassinated at Lisbon.

completed the ascendancy he had already gained over the mind of King Joseph V., and from 1750 to 1777 Pombal was virtually governor of Portugal. A statesman of rare intellectual power and force of will, he set himself first to liberate Portugal from its economic bondage, by promoting the manufacture of sugar, silk, woollens, paper, glass and gunpowder; and by the creation of chartered companies to develop the sardine and tunny fisheries and the trade of Brazil and Portuguese India.

This brought him into conflict with the English wine traders of the north, who found their monopoly threatened by Portuguese competition; and with the Jesuits, whose large commercial interests in Brazil were similarly jeopardized by the liberation of all negro slaves in the provinces of Pará and Maranhão, and by the activity of the new companies. Pombal stamped out a rebellion in the north, and detected (or, as his enemies said, invented) the so-called Tavora plot against the life of the **King**. The Marquess of Tavora and other noblemen were executed, and suspicion was thrown upon the **Jesuits**. Pombal profited by this to secure a Royal decree expelling all members of that society from the whole of the Portuguese dominions. The decree was enforced with great harshness, and for thirteen years diplomatic relations between Portugal and the Vatican were broken off.

Education and national defence also gave employment to Pombal's reforming energy. He established a royal printing press and a school of commerce; reorganized Coimbra University and introduced the teaching of natural science; planned a complete national system of primary and secondary education; made the decisions of the Inquisition subject to revision by lay tribunals, and removed the ecclesiastical censorship on books. When the country was invaded by a Spanish force (1762-3)—an incident arising out of the Seven Years' War, and in consequence of the British alliance—he reorganized the army, increasing its numbers from five thousand to fifty thousand, and secured the assistance of large British reinforcements, thus bringing the war to a successful issue.

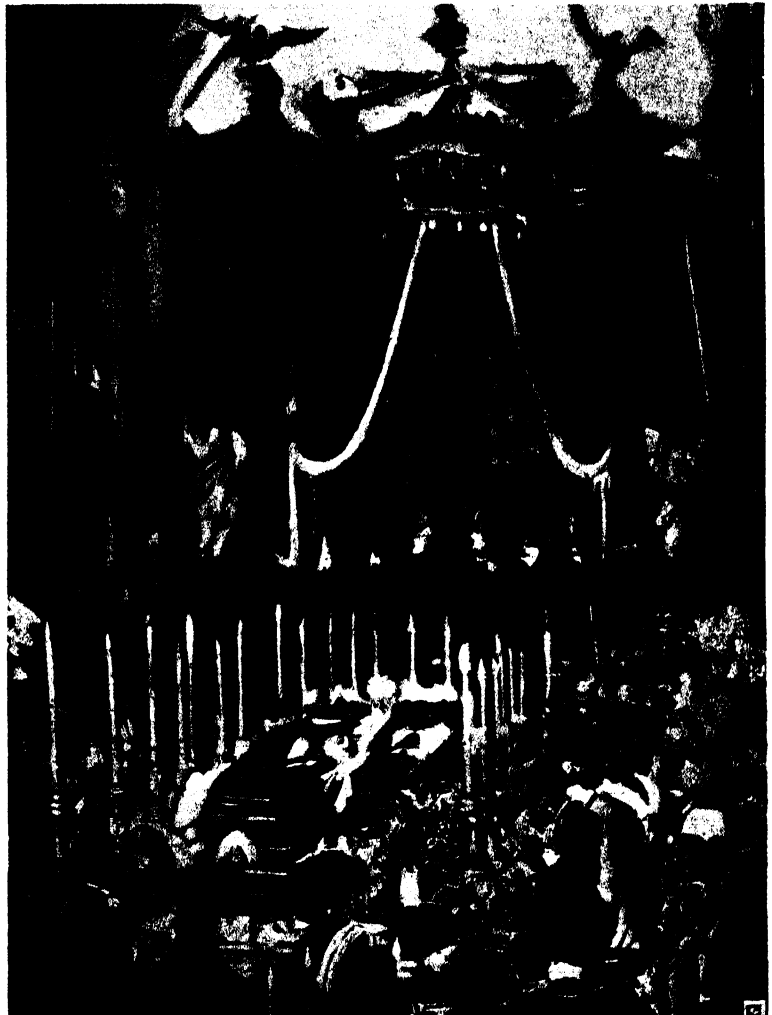
Shortly after the death of King Joseph and the accession of Queen Maria I., Pombal was dismissed from office, and his policy reversed. It only bore fruit later on, when the years of reaction were over and the nation had reconquered its independence in the War of Liberation—our "Peninsular" War. Meanwhile the predominance of the Church and the aristocracy was re-established, and the "new ideas" propagated by Pombal were feared and combated with the more zeal owing to the alarm which the French Revolution excited in Court circles. The Queen became insane after the death of her husband and her eldest son; and her second son, Dom John, was acting as regent when Portugal became involved in the world-embracing plans of Napoleon.

It was the reiterated demand that Portuguese harbours should be closed to British ships which directly implicated the nation in the Peninsular War. The British alliance was still in force, and even without this, mere prudence would have compelled Portugal, with its huge overseas empire and exposed coast-line, to side with the victors of Trafalgar and masters of the seas. Moreover, France and Spain had agreed upon the partition of Portugal in any event.

In 1807 Napoleon sent General Junot to Lisbon at the head of a Franco-Spanish army, and on the advice of the British Government Dom John fled to Brazil, leaving a Council of Regency to govern in his name. The Peninsular campaigns of the next five years, which included three separate invasions of Portugal, in 1807-8, 1809, 1810-11, are described more particularly elsewhere, and only the leading events will be summarized here.

Until the summer of 1808 Junot was virtually King of Portugal. The quarrel between France and Spain then induced the Spanish garrison of Oporto to mutiny and the Portuguese to strike a blow for liberty. The Council of Regency was reconstituted in Oporto, and appealed to Great Britain, with the result that an expeditionary force was despatched under Sir Arthur Wellesley. Landing at the mouth of the Mondego, the allied troops defeated the French at Roliça and Vimeiro, and forced Junot to sign the Convention of Cintra, by which he agreed to evacuate Portugal. The second invasion, in 1809, was rendered possible by the famous retreat of Sir John Moore's army upon Corunna. This exposed the northern provinces to attack from Marshal Soult's army, which swept down upon Oporto. Again the British under Wellesley came to the rescue, forced the passage of the Douro and drove the French back into Spain. Great gallantry was displayed by the Portuguese troops, who had been reorganized and were now commanded by Major-General Sir William Beresford.

The third and most formidable invading army, one hundred and twenty thousand men, led by Marshal Masséna, entered Portugal in 1810. The allies fought a successful delaying action at Busaco and then withdrew behind the previously prepared lines of Torres Vedras. Here, in a triangle of which one side rested on the sea and another on Lisbon and the Tagus estuary, while the third was protected by field fortifications of great strength, Wellington's army



THE FUNERAL OF KING CARLOS I. AND THE CROWN PRINCE LUIZ, 1908.

The last rites took place at the church of São Vicente at Lisbon. The two coffins were placed upon sloping biers, and through the glass lids could be seen the dead bodies of the King and Crown Prince. The church, which was dimly lighted by candles, was draped with hangings of black and silver, and purple and gold. The funeral service was magnificent and impressive.

stood on the defensive. Masséna's long lines of communication over bad roads were harassed by the Portuguese peasants, who deliberately laid waste the country from which the French hoped to draw supplies. By the spring of 1811 the allies had been reinforced, and were able to take the offensive successfully against an enemy weakened by partial starvation and the hardships of a winter campaign. Masséna was driven back over the frontier, and Portuguese territory was thenceforward immune from attack, though the Portuguese troops continued to serve under Wellington until 1814.

#### MODERN PORTUGAL: 1815-1915

ONE great issue has in reality dominated Portuguese history from the Peace of Vienna to the establishment of the Republic. It underlies the civil wars of the earlier half of the nineteenth century, and the political intrigues and manœuvres of later years. That issue has been the struggle between two irreconcilable ideals: on one side the new ideals of democracy, born of the Pombaline reforms, inspired by the French Revolution, strengthened by the ordeal of the Napoleonic Wars; on the other side, the old ideals of an absolute monarchy in close alliance with the established Church. It is this struggle which gives interest and colour and unity to the tangled web of modern Portuguese politics.

After the downfall of Napoleon, the dissatis-



EX-KING MANOEL AND HIS CONSORT.

Manoel II., ex-King of Portugal, was born at Lisbon on the 15th of November, 1889, and succeeded his father Carlos I. in 1908. He was deposed on the outbreak of the Revolution on the 5th of October, 1910. His consort is the daughter of the Prince of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. The royal couple were married in Bavaria on the 4th of September, 1913.

Stuart, the British Ambassador; and the granting of a Constitution. A successful military rising in 1820 led to the establishment of a new Council of Regency and the promulgation of a Constitution which included liberty of the Press, single-chamber government, the suppression of the Holy Office, and the abolition of all class privileges. This attempt to legislate in advance of public opinion failed. John VI. returned and swore allegiance to the Constitution; but the action of his two sons brought about a crisis. The elder, Dom Pedro, became the first Emperor of independent Brazil in 1822, and Portugal thus lost for ever the greatest and richest of its colonies. The younger, Dom Miguel, appealed to the Portuguese army to "restore liberty" to his royal father, and the revolt was only crushed after his royal father had been forced to seek refuge on a British warship.

With the death of John VI. in 1826 the question of who should succeed resulted in civil war. The Crown Prince was Pedro, Emperor of Brazil, who drew up the "Charter of 1826," granting a new Constitution to Portugal on more moderate lines. But Portugal refused to be ruled from Brazil; and by the late King's will, Dom Pedro's daughter, Maria da Gloria, was to become Queen, on condition that she married her uncle, Dom Miguel, who also claimed the throne.

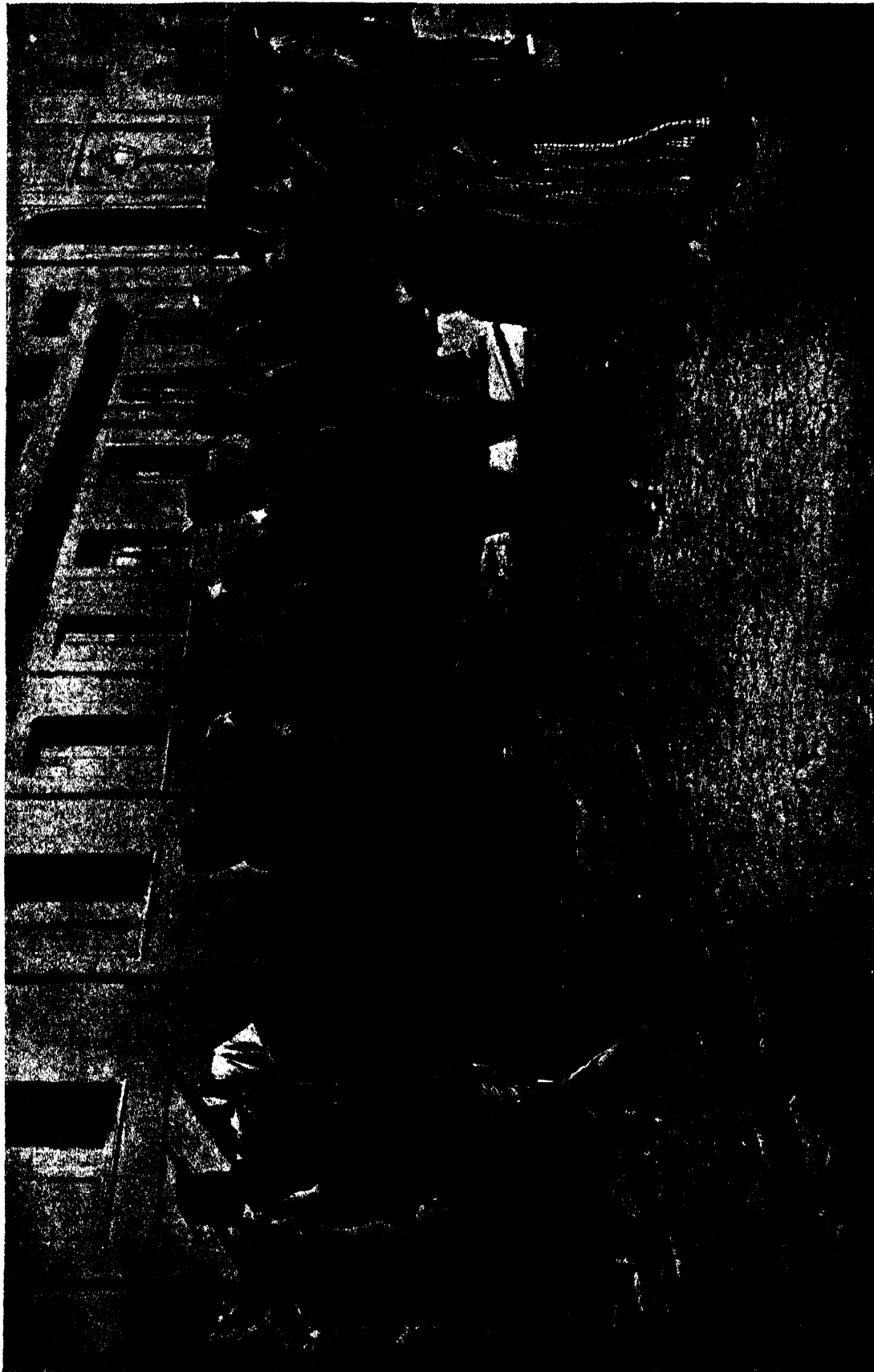
faction of the Portuguese with the existing régime crystallized into three definite demands: for the return of King John VI. from Brazil; the ending of the autocratic rule exercised, in fact, by Sir William Beresford and Sir Charles



#### SALUTING THE BIRTH OF THE PORTUGUESE REPUBLIC.

On the 3rd October, 1910, the murder of a prominent Republican precipitated the Revolution which had already been organized in Portugal. The Republican soldiers in Lisbon, aided by armed civilians and warships in the Tagus, attacked the loyal garrison and municipal guards, shelled the Palace, and after three days' severe street fighting became masters of the capital. The proclamation of the Republic throughout Portugal was received everywhere with great enthusiasm, signs of which are depicted here.





#### NUNS UNDER REPUBLICAN PROTECTION DURING THE REVOLUTION.

At the time of the Revolution the anti-clerical feeling in Portugal was immensely strong, especially in Lisbon. The Republic issued a decree expelling all members of religious communities from the country. Those who elected to stay in Portugal were forbidden to appear in the garb of their religion.

Dom Miguel, brutal, illiterate, fanatically religious, and a profound believer in the doctrine of the divine right of kings, was supported by the army, by the Church, by Spain and by Austria. During the wars (1828-1834) between his partisans and those of Maria da Gloria, the Miguelites were at first completely successful.

They held Portugal; Queen Maria ruled only in the Azores. But Dom Pedro resigned his throne to take up his daughter's cause; raised a loan of two million pounds in Great Britain, and purchased a navy, which was brilliantly commanded by two English officers, first by Captain Sartorius, and later, by Captain Charles Napier. A successful invasion of Portugal ensued, signalized by the remarkable generalship of Marshal Saldanha, who finally crushed the Miguelites at Asseiceira. Dom Miguel surrendered a few days later, and by the Convention of Evora Monte was condemned to perpetual banishment, while the Charter was restored.

Portugal was now definitely committed to constitutional government; but the long reign of Maria da Gloria was a period of many plots and counter-plots, of revolutions and counter-revolutions. The Miguelites were still active, but more important was the rivalry between those who believed in the extreme Constitution of 1820 and those who preferred the Charter of 1826. The final result was a revision of the Charter (1852), which provided for the direct election of members of the Cortes, created representative municipal councils, and abolished capital punishment for political offences.

During the comparatively uneventful reigns of Dom Pedro V. and Dom Luiz, two new political parties came into being: the Regenerators, who were the political heirs of the Chartists, and the Progressives, originally an advanced wing of the same party. These may be described as the Conserva-

tive and Radical sections of the Monarchists; both were opposed to the Republicans, who appeared as an independent organization—strong in the country, but poorly represented in the Cortes, owing to the manipulation of electoral returns—from 1881 onwards.

Under Dom Carlos, the activity shown by the Portuguese in South Central Africa led to difficulties with Great Britain, and in 1890 an ultimatum was presented by the British Minister in Lisbon; but during the next year a Convention was concluded by the two countries defining their respective territorial spheres and interests in Africa. During the Boer War Portugal remained neutral, and a dispute in regard to the Delagoa Bay Railway was settled by arbitration.

Meanwhile the internal condition of the country was serious. A financial crisis had taken place in 1891; deficit followed deficit with monotonous regularity, and new debts were piled up with reckless extravagance. The two Monarchist parties contrived to enjoy the spoils of office in fairly regular succession—hence the popular nickname of *rotativos*—and to exclude the Republicans from their fair share



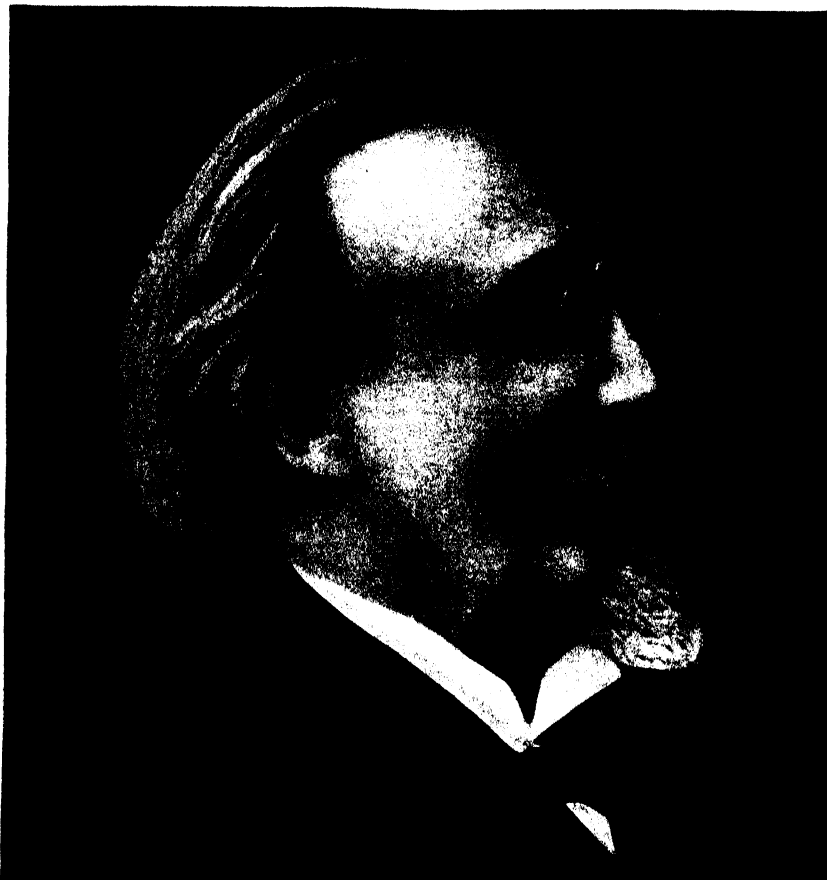
DR. AFFONSO COSTA.

Dr. Affonso Costa was Minister of Finance in the first Portuguese Republican Cabinet and the leader of the Democratic Party. He was the author of the law of Separation between Church and State.

of representation. Meanwhile Republicanism steadily increased its hold upon the nation and the army and navy; ominous mutinies and local insurrections broke out from time to time.

Such was the state of affairs when João Franco became Prime Minister, with a programme of drastic reforms in 1906. He was hailed by his adherents as a second Pombal. With the support of the King, he endeavoured to establish a virtual Dictatorship, and to carry out his programme by a series of Royal Decrees, without the consent of the Cortes. The Dictatorship ended suddenly on the 1st of February, 1908; Dom Carlos and the Crown Prince were shot while driving through the streets of Lisbon. Dom Manoel II. became King, Franco went into exile; those of the assassins who were not killed on the spot escaped unpunished, while those who perished were openly acclaimed by the Republican Press as martyrs.

On the 3rd of October a carefully organized Republican rising took place, in which both the army and navy took part. After some fighting the Republicans gained control of Lisbon, permitting the King to escape to Gibraltar and thence to England. Attempts were made by the Monarchists to stir up national feeling in favour of the exile,



DR. MANOEL ARRIAGA.

Dr. Manoel Arriaga was elected President of the recognized Portuguese Republic on the 11th of September, 1911. He was a very staunch Republican, having no sympathy with the Royalists, and would not allow an amnesty to the priests.

President and two Chambers; the vote was given to all adult males able to read and write. Dr. Manoel Arriaga was elected first President of the Republic, but the dominating figure in Portuguese politics at this time was Dr. Afonso Costa, an able financier and a democrat of the most extreme type.

Great social changes took place during the early years of the Republic. The Church was disestablished and disendowed, a measure of far-reaching importance, carried out with excessive rigour. Syndicalism and Socialism won many adherents, and strikes accompanied by bomb-throwing and sabotage were of frequent occurrence. The systematic persecution of the Monarchists, the increase of taxation, and the consequent exodus of capital from the country led to much distress among the poor, and to emigration on an unprecedented scale. Nevertheless, the Republic remained unshaken, and in 1914 the Government found itself strong enough to grant a general amnesty to political prisoners, and to initiate an extensive programme of naval construction and colonial development.

but neither these nor the guerilla bands under Captain Couceiro attained any practical success. A Provisional Republican Government was formed under the Presidency of Dr. Theophilo Braga, a distinguished Positivist philosopher and man of letters; in the summer of 1911 a Constituent Assembly met and voted a new Constitution. The sovereignty was vested in a

# DATES OF NORWEGIAN HISTORY

DYNASTY.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
The Line of Harald the Fair-haired.	A.D.	
	860	Succession of Harald I, the Fair-haired.
	872	Battle of Hafsford. Monarchical unification of Norway begins.
	874	Beginning of colonization of Iceland, which becomes a free state.
	885	Invasion of France by the Vikings under Rolf Ganger. The province, later known as Normandy, is ceded by Charles the Simple, who also gives his daughter in marriage to Rolf.
	930	Expulsion of Erik I., "The Bloody Axe," a tyrant who had slain his brothers.
	935	Haakon I., "The Good," becomes king, and vainly endeavours to establish Christianity
	995	Olav Trygvesson seizes the throne.
	1000	Battle of Svolder. Norway divided between the Danish and Swedish kings.
	1030	Death of St. Olav.
	1035-47	Reign of Magnus the Good. Norway unified and Christian.
	1066	Death of Harald at Stamford Bridge.
	1067	Feud between King Svend of Denmark and Olav Kyrre, which is ended by the marriage of Olav with the daughter of Svend.
	1070	Olav III. founds Bergen.
	1093	Succession of Magnus Barefoot, an ambitious ruler, who is killed in battle in Ireland.
	1130	Death of Sigurd the Crusader. Civil war begins.
	1152	Foundation of the Archbishopric of Nidaros (Trondhjem).
	1240	End of the civil wars.
	1262	Haakon the Old wins Iceland.
	1274	First general code of laws.
	1308	Independent shrievalties abolished.
The Folkunger Line.	1319	Loose dynastic union with Sweden.
	1349	The Black Death begins.
	1371	Union with Sweden dissolved.
Rulers of all Scandinavia.	1380-1412	Margaret governs as regent.
	1397	Margaret's nephew Erik of Pomerania is crowned king.
	1412	Denmark, Sweden and Norway revolt against the weak and incompetent rule of Erik, who is deposed.
	1436	Peasant revolt.
	1449	Break-up of the Union of Kalmar.
The Oldenburg Line.	1450	Union with Denmark only, by Treaty of Bergen.
	1469	Orkneys and Shetlands pawned.
	1482	Effort to break away from Denmark.
	1506-11	Prince Christian (afterwards Christian II.) Viceroy.
	1524	Deposition of Christian II.
	1531-32	Christian II. invades Norway.
	1537	Norway becomes a vassal state under Denmark. Many wars with Sweden follow.
	1539	Lutheran church organized.
	1563-70	Norway suffers in the Seven Years' War of the North.
	1588-1648	Reign of Christian IV., who frequently visits Norway.
	1611-13	War of Kalmar.
	1624	Foundation of Christiania.
	1645	Jämtland and Herjedalen ceded to Sweden.
	1658	Baahus and Trondhjem ceded to Sweden.
	1660	Trondhjem recovered from Sweden. Modern frontier confirmed. Monarchy becomes absolute.
	1684	Holberg born.
	1716 & 1718	Norway invaded by Charles XII., who dies there.
	1771	Popular opposition in Norway roused by Struensee's violent reforms.
	1807	Norway involved in the Napoleonic wars, especially with England.
	1811	University of Christiania founded.
Swedish Kings.	1813	Prince Christian Frederick regent.
	1814	Peace of Kiel. Norway declares herself independent. Constitution of May 17th. War with Sweden.
		Convention of Moss.
	1815	Norway accepts the Imperial Act of Union. Bank of Norway founded.
	1818-44	Bernadotte (Charles XIV.) king.
	1821	Titles of nobility abolished.
	1829	Affray in Christiania market-place caused by prohibition of May 17th celebration.
	1830	Literary struggle between Wergeland (Nationalist) and Welhaven (Cosmopolitan).
	1833	Peasants' party formed. In opposition, aims at economy and democracy.
	1837	Climax of parliamentary agitation. Great progress in communal self-government.
	1844	Norway secures her own war-flag.
	1850	Emigration to the United States assumes considerable proportions.
	1860	Parliamentary struggle for the abolition of the Viceroyalty.
	1864	The overthrow of Denmark severely shocks Scandinavian feeling in Norway.
	1869	Storting becomes annual.
	1872	Accession of Oscar II., personally perhaps the most acceptable monarch since Christian IV.
	1873	The Viceroyalty abolished.
	1884	Ielmer, Prime Minister, impeached for advising the king to veto a bill making ministers responsible to Storting. King accepts Sverdrup and the Left (until 1889). Many social reforms.
	1892	Storting attempts to secure separate consuls for Norway.
	1896	Nansen returns from Polar exploration.
	1898	Manhood suffrage instituted.
	1905	Norway secures independence. A Danish prince elected King.
New Oldenburg Line.	1905	Haakon VII. accepts the Crown.
	1906	Death of Ibsen.
	1908	Storting approves treaty with Britain, France, Germany and Russia, guaranteeing Norwegian territory.
	1910	Death of Björnson.
	1911	Amundsen discovers the South Pole.
	1913	Full woman suffrage inaugurated.
	1915	Common action with Sweden and Denmark developed.

## CHAPTER XXIV

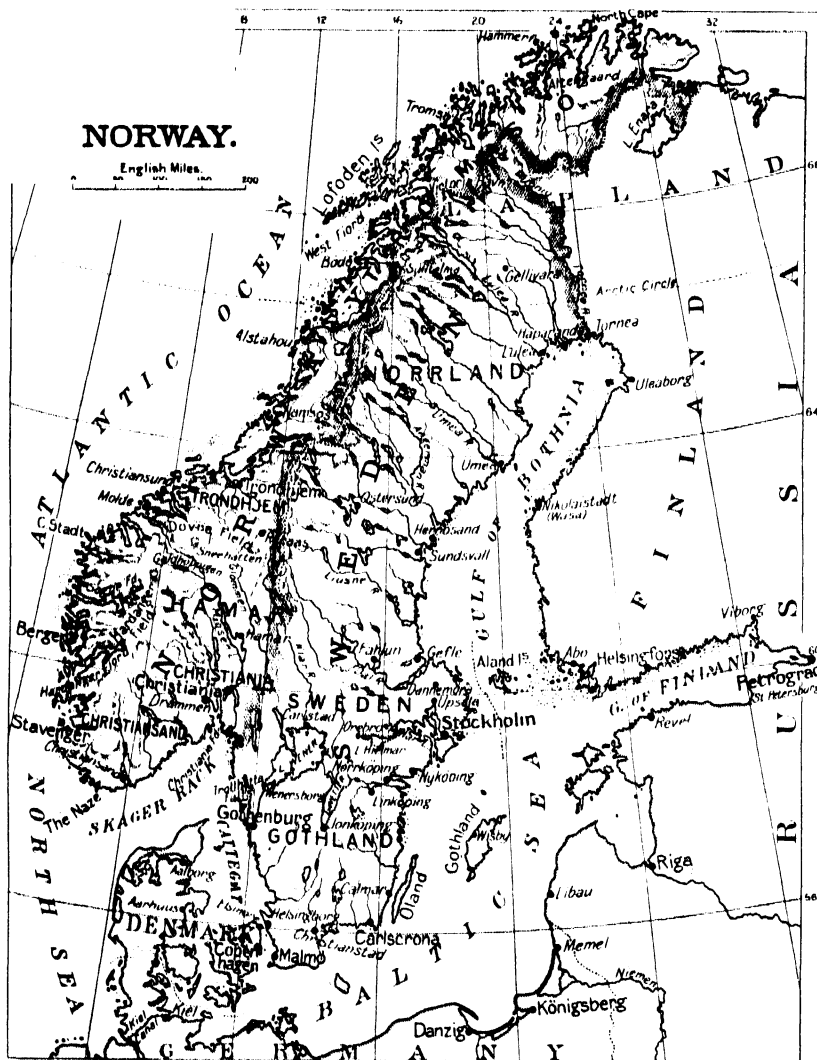
THE NORWEGIANS. By W. F. REDDAWAY, M.A.

THE Scandinavian nations, as we now know them, are the Norwegians, Swedes and Danes. Although they are subject to separate kings, this has not always been the case. As kindred States overshadowed

by mighty neighbouring empires, they may be said to form a natural federation. They have a common religion—the Lutheran—and a language which all can understand, besides a thousand ties of history and commerce.

But although Scandinavia is unsurpassed in its charm for Englishmen, comparatively few pass its frontiers. It is, therefore, the more necessary to insist that its three constituents are, and always have been, distinct and separate. The simple, democratic Norwegian is primarily a seaman or a mountaineer. The Swede, the embodiment of gracious courtesy, regards tillage, mining and forestry as the foundations of his national well-being. The Dane, whose blood is almost as mixed as our own, inhabits a land where a hill of five hundred feet is entitled the "Heaven-Mountain," and has made his dairy and stock-farming a pattern to the world.

Scandinavia, the home of these three races, is not fenced off by nature from Russia and from Germany.



Executed specially for]

[Hutchinson's "History of the Nations." Copyright.

#### MAP OF NORWAY.

Norway is separated from Sweden by a natural barrier of mountains, the Kjölen range, which forms the backbone of the Scandinavian Peninsula. Constitutionally the two countries have been united and divided many times, but Norway declared its independence once more in 1905. Gotland (Sweden), an island in the Baltic Sea, was once of great importance owing to its connection with the Hanseatic League.

It consists roughly of the great peninsula within which lie Norway and Sweden, and of the smaller peninsula Jutland, which, with certain important islands, makes up Denmark. These two peninsulas, particularly the more northerly, have thousands of island satellites. No considerable physical barrier is interposed between Southern Denmark and Germany, or between Northern Sweden and Russia; only a narrow strait of the tideless Baltic severs the chief Danish island from the southern plain of what is



*Painted specially for this work*

### RAID BY VIKINGS.

*[By Maurice Raudall.]*

The Vikings were bands of Norse sea-kings and flourished in the eighth, ninth and tenth centuries. They established a reputation for themselves as freebooters, pirates and marauders. Many countries suffered at the hands of these sea-robbers, who would set sail in their celebrated ships for some coast where they would suddenly land and ravage the countryside, carrying off every description of plunder, and more often than not young maidens as wives for themselves.

now the Swedish mainland. But a broad belt of desolate and difficult country divides the northern and central Swedes from the Norwegians. These geographical facts have profoundly affected the history of the Scandinavian nations.

That history, compared with our own, is short. Scandinavia lay not only outside the Empire of the Romans, but almost beyond their ken. It was an "ultimate dim Thule," destined first to receive some measure of the Roman culture through its tardy conversion to the



*Painted by*

*[Mrs. de Crespiigny.]*

The "Long Serpent" was probably the flagship of Olav Trygvasson, and was built by the celebrated master-builder, Thorberg. There were thirty-four benches for rowers. The head and the tail were both gilt, and the bulwarks as high as in sea-going ships; in fact this was the best and most costly vessel ever made in Norway.

Christian faith. Almost ten centuries of the new era had passed by before the deeds of the North gave rise to connected history. From other sciences, however, especially from archæology and comparative philology, it is possible in some measure to fill the gap in our knowledge. Thanks to what the men of Iceland set down long afterwards, the age of declining heathenism in Norway has been so portrayed as to enthrall posterity. A great chronicler, Saxo Grammaticus, who wrote late in the twelfth century, preserved the records



*Painted by*

*[Mrs. de Crespiigny.]*

A fleet of Viking ships is depicted sailing the high seas on one of the many piratical expeditions or forays which the Norsemen frequently made on their neighbours. The vessels generally sailed in the formation shown, so that each captain might have room to manoeuvre his own ship.

of early medieval Denmark. Sweden, through the brilliant exploits of her Vasa kings, won for herself undying fame in the wider theatre of modern Europe. The past two centuries, however, have witnessed the abandonment by the Scandinavians of all phantasies of national greatness, and the rise of a new ambition to excel in science and civilization. In modern days, moreover, as in the most ancient, the North has proved itself, through emigration, the cradle and workshop of races. Millions of her sons dwell overseas, principally in North America.

The Norwegians, like the Scandinavians in general, first appear as barbarians, loosely termed Goths, who came by sea from more southerly lands and drove out the aboriginal Finns and Lapps from their abode. A tall, cleanly race, with ruddy cheeks and hair of gleaming fairness, they were by turns farmers, warriors, fishermen, hunters, traders and pirates. They possessed in full measure the virtues and the failings of the strong—hospitality, reverence for women and for truth, conjoined with ruthlessness and sensuality.

The religion of these dwellers in the North imaged the North itself—vast, bleak, and yet inspiring. Children of nature, they placed among their gods "the sun, the day, the godlike powers of light, the night, and the many-nourishing earth as the daughter of night, sacred waters, stones and birds." Their simple rites demanded neither priest nor walled temple. Thrice yearly they assembled at spots deemed holy, where they offered sacrifices of beasts, slaves, or even conquered kings. Others turned to drink deep and often to fight. Many centuries later a careful wife would not journey with her husband to a bridal without taking with her his shroud. Of such festivals, the greatest was that of Yule, when they flocked together to take heart from fire and feasting.



*By permission of]*

*[The Autotype Fine Art Co. Ltd., 74, New Bond Street, W*

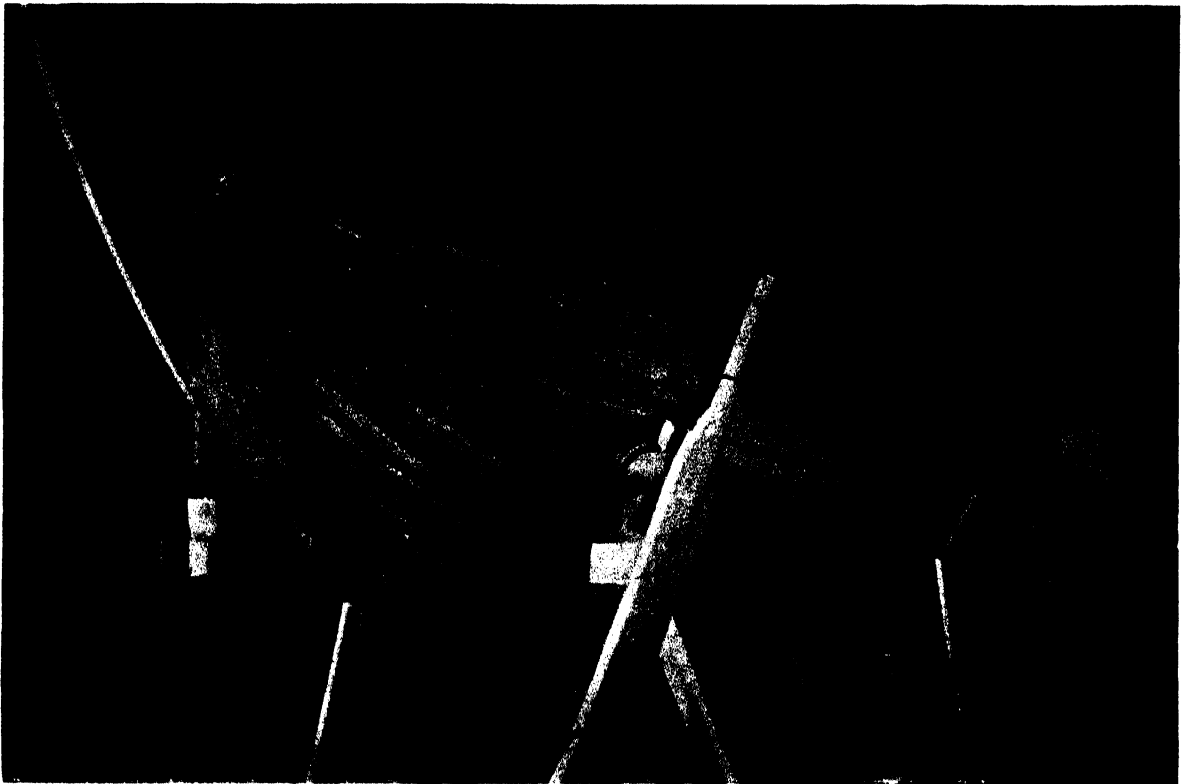
## THE VIKING'S FAREWELL.

The Vikings voyaged as far as the Mediterranean, and their conquest of northern France is perpetuated by the name Normandy, the country of the Northmen. A Viking is seen bidding farewell to his wife before setting out on a journey.



and to invoke their unseen helpers against the spirits of darkness and of cold. The world they pictured as a great ash-tree, kept in perennial verdure by the three Fates, whose decrees both gods and men obeyed. The tree, Yggdrasil, had three roots. One root went down into a cold and dark region, where a serpent gnawed it unceasingly. The second linked the trunk with the elfin world, where dwelt the Mimes, the treasurers of wisdom. The third root led to heaven, where Odin ruled, gathering to himself in Valhalla, the great hall of fame and delight, those who had died in battle. Others passed at death under the abhorred sway of Hel, the hideous daughter of the Evil One. Neither the world nor its gods were immortal. But the slaughter of Odin and the wreck of all things earthly, heralded by every horror of cold and bloodshed, was to be followed by a new age of innocence and joy.

Such was the faith of the Vikings, dwellers by the *vik*, or bay. Their lives, though hard, were free



REMAINS OF A VIKINGS' SHIP AT CHRISTIANIA.

Amongst the Northern antiquities in the Christiania museum are the remains of two Vikings' ships, one of which is depicted above. These ships were excavated in 1867 and 1880 respectively from the burial-place of their owners, Viking chiefs, who according to custom were buried in the vessels.

from all control save that of their kinsmen, and this freedom they loved. They combined only into petty kingdoms, more than thirty in number. Those of the west coast of the great Scandinavian peninsula had, moreover, to subdue the most barren soil and the most forbidding mountains of all the North. They were therefore slow to form a single state of Norway under one king, but swift to leave their shores in small groups for plunder or conquest overseas. During the ninth century these forays grew in number and importance. In Ireland, the home of a then unequalled civilization, the Norsemen founded several kingdoms, of which Dublin was the chief. The Faroe, Shetland and Orkney islands, the Hebrides and the Isle of Man, were peopled by fugitives from Norway. Greatest of all such colonies was Iceland, whence came the discovery of Greenland, and, in the year 1000, of the mainland of North America.

Such emigration received a powerful stimulus from the rise of Harald the Fairhaired to power. Himself a petty king of Swedish descent, he wooed a princess who bade him become the equal of the

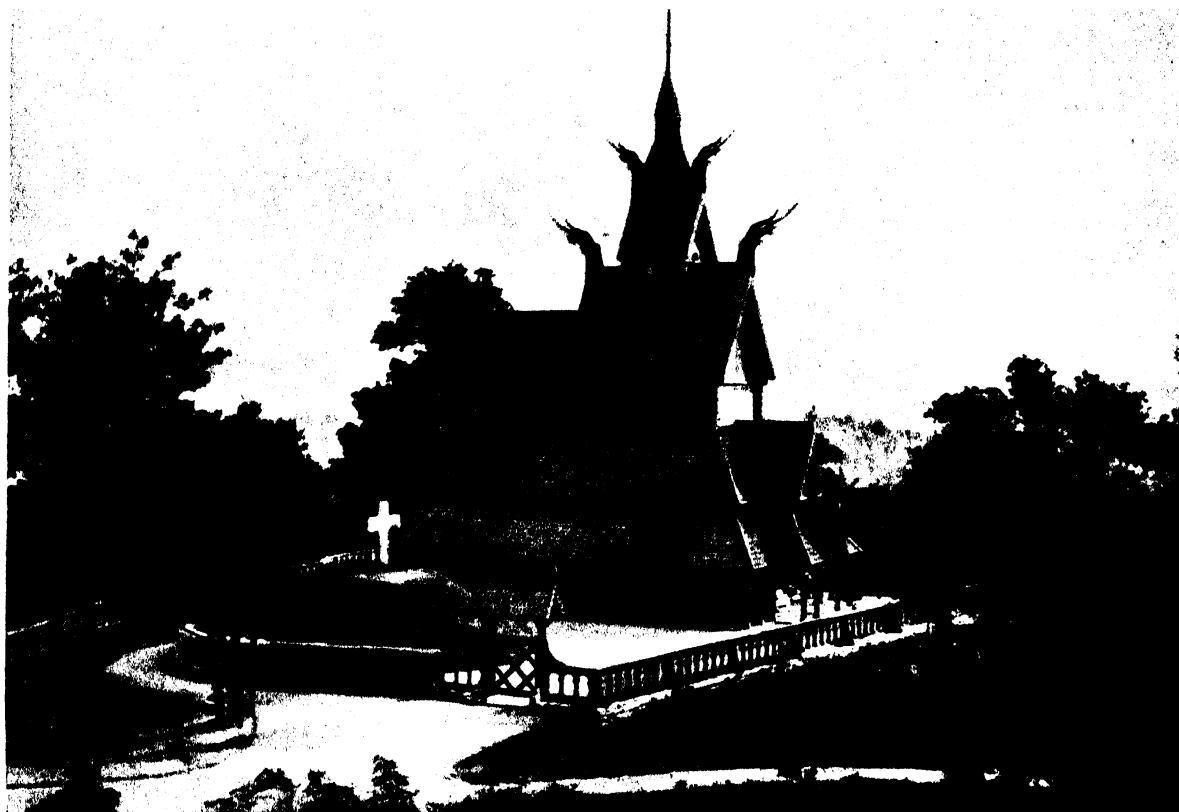


*Painted specially for this work*

#### KING OLAV THE SAINT BREAKING THE IMAGE OF THE GOD MOR. 1020.

*[By J. H. Valda.]*

Olav the Saint did much towards the advancement of Christianity among his subjects. One morning the people who had assembled to hear Mass brought with them a great image of the god Mor. All at once the sun burst through the clouds, and the congregation all turned towards the east. The King struck the idol a terrific blow with his club, shattering it to pieces. Rats, lizards, snakes and other animals which had lived upon the delicacies supplied to the god appeared amongst the fragments, much to the consternation of the multitude.



FANTOFT CHURCH

The curious old country church at Fantoft, near Bergen, is a picturesque example of early Norse architecture. The building is constructed entirely of wood, and is the only known example of a completely open arcade. The peculiar gable finials are typically Scandinavian and date back to the time of the Vikings.

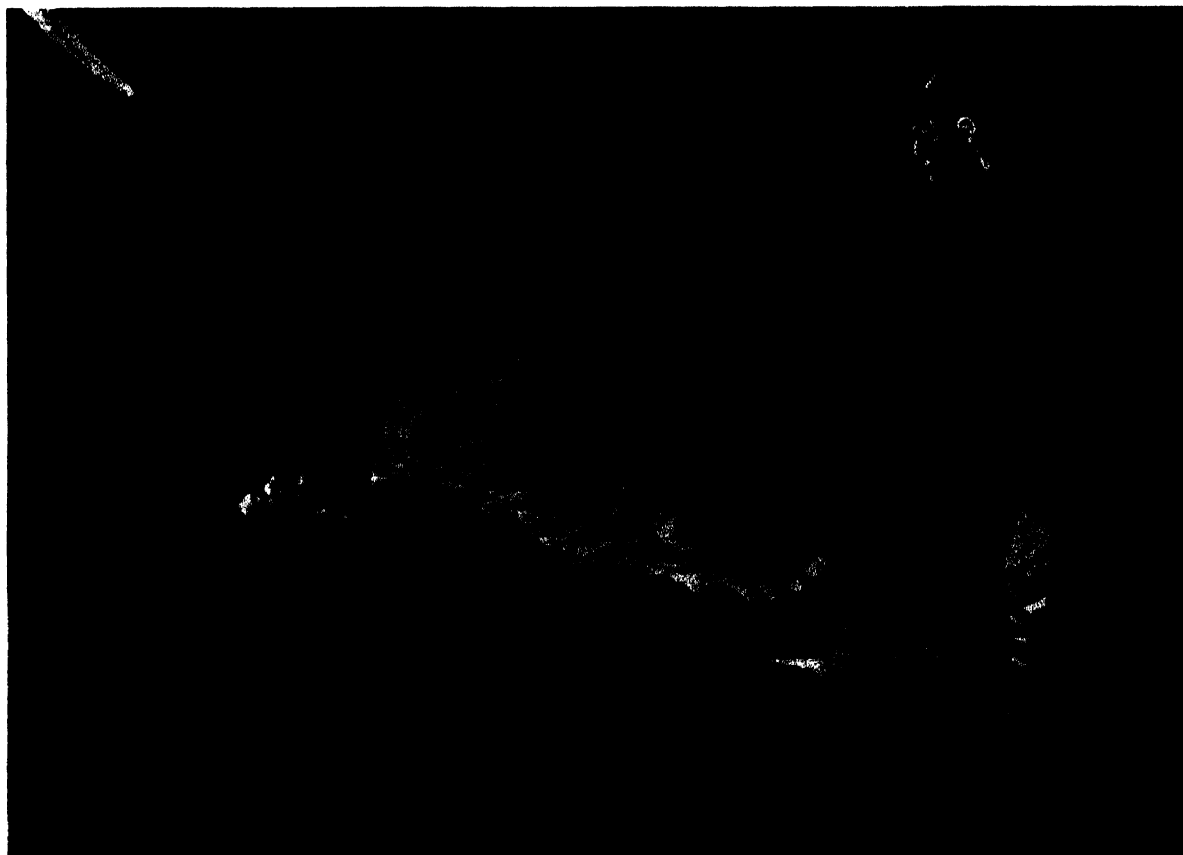
Danish and Swedish monarchs. He vowed to become king of all Norway, and even to the Shetlands he kept his vow. The sea-fight of Hafrsfjord, near Stavanger, in 872, proved the decisive stroke. Harald instituted earls and sheriffs to assist the king, and compelled every peasant to pay taxes. Rather than endure such tyranny, many fled to Iceland.

After Harald's death in 933, his sons dismembered Norway, until Haakon, the youngest, returning from the court of Athelstan of England, won all hearts by surrendering the royal right to levy taxes. Haakon, "the Good," organized the national defence, and brought two great regions to obey common laws, but failed to induce the peasants to adopt the faith into which he had been baptized in England. "I have lived like a heathen," he cried upon his deathbed, "and like a heathen shall ye bury me." His next great successor, Earl Haakon, was a champion of the old faith, who, it is said, did not shrink from purchasing victory by sacrificing his son to the gods. His murder in 995 made room for Olav Trygvessön, whose five years' reign forms a landmark in Norwegian history. A grandson of Harald the Fairhaired, and the most famous Viking of his day, he christianized the peasants by offering them baptism or battle. His death at the sea-fight near Rügen, after triumphing over the combined Danish and Swedish fleets, forms the climax of Viking history.

It remained for a kinsman and namesake of King Olav to crown his labours for the faith and unity of the land. Driven from his throne by Canute the Great and a rebel party, he fell at Stiklestad (1030) in attempting to regain it by force. Further experience of the Danish rule, however, made the people regard him with more appreciation, and as Saint Olav he became the patron saint of Norway. At Trondhjem, the town which he had founded, his shrine was established, and pilgrims flocked thither. It remained for his son, Magnus the Good (1035-47), firmly to establish the unity and independence of Norway and its devotion to the Christian faith.

The reign of Magnus the Good, however, forms a small part of a long story of wars, foreign and domestic, by which Norway was distracted for two hundred years (1030-1240). Rulers such as Harald the Hard in Counsel, who fell at Stamford Bridge (1047-1066), and Magnus Barefoot (1093-1103), weakened the state, although the former founded Oslo, now Christiania. The rule of succession to the throne, moreover, seemed devised to cripple Norway. Every male descendant of Harald the Fairhaired, whether born in or out of wedlock, might claim a share in the sovereignty. Such claimants as were previously unknown proved their identity by submitting to the ordeal, and then strove to dispossess the king or to destroy their competitors. Wars between rival kings, and even between the supporters and the opponents of monarchy, laid the land desolate.

These dismal years witnessed the rise of the Norwegian Church. Under King Olav the Quiet (1066-93) Norway ceased to be a mere province or mission-church of Bremen. He founded the bishoprics of Trondhjem, Christiania, and his own creation, Bergen. His grandson, Sigurd, added a vivid page to the romance of the Crusades, and the gilded dragon's head from his own ship adorned the church of St. Peter in Constantinople. The king gave the clergy tithe. Monastic institutions followed, and the monks and friars taught the Norwegians the arts and agriculture practised in more prosperous countries. In 1152 Norway gained an archbishopric of her own at Trondhjem, with jurisdiction extending over the islands of the west. Churches of stone began to replace the picturesque wooden structures native to Norway. Here, however, as in other lands, the growth of the Catholic Church menaced the sovereignty of the king. In 1161 the archbishop crowned Magnus Erlingsson, a returned Crusader, on condition that the realm became a fief of St. Olav and the king a vassal of the Church. But an adventurous



*Painted specially for this work*

[By J. H. Valda.

## IMPRISONMENT AND DEATH OF DUKES ERIK AND VALDEMAR, 1318.

Erik and Valdemar were the sons of King Magnus Ladulass, at whose death Birger succeeded to the throne. Erik and Valdemar joined in civil war against their brother, for which they were thrown into prison, where they died. Their death was avenged by friends, who executed Birger's son, and elected Duke Erik's three-year-old son, Magnus Smek, to the throne of Norway and Sweden.

islander, Sverre, son of Sigurd, roused the peasants and crushed Magnus in the Sogne fjord (1184). The victory was gained by overwhelming the smaller ships of the enemy, whose crews, in struggling to save themselves, sunk the greater. Its sequel was, in effect, a monarchical revolution. King Sverre rewarded his low-born followers with the fiefs of their opponents, governed through royal officials, defied two interdicts, and secured the succession of his son (1202). It remained, however, for his grandson, Haakon "the Old" (1217-1263) to end the hundred years' struggle between peasants and adherents of the Church with a complete victory for the Crown. The remnants of the great noble houses submitted. The Church forbade the ordeal. The Crown became almost omnipotent, and the succession was confined to the eldest son born in wedlock. Under Haakon, Norway gained Iceland and Greenland, and enjoyed a new renown in Europe. The king died like a Viking, listening to the sagas of his ancestors, while on a

great expedition against the Scots. His son, Magnus (1263-80), earned the surname of the Law-betterer by not only improving the laws, but by making a single code valid throughout the realm. But he abandoned to the Scots both the Hebrides and the Isle of Man and struck a heavier blow at his



TRONDHIEM CATHEDRAL.

The Cathedral is the principal building in Trondhjem, and possesses traditions eight centuries old. It is the finest church in Norway and the scene of Norwegian coronations. In shape it is cruciform, with a central tower and an eastern octagon, thought to have been copied from Canterbury Cathedral. A spire has been added within the last fifty years.

but raised the power of the Crown by abolishing the ranks of earl and sheriff. In 1319 the male line of Harald the Fairhaired died out. It left Norway in the enjoyment of national unity, a monarchy no longer overshadowed by the Church or challenged by the nobles, a native literature of high merit, and, above all, an unimpaired social freedom. Five centuries, perhaps six, were destined to pass by before so favourable a position was again secured.

From 1319 until 1363 Norway endured a loose dynastic union with Sweden. For her this signified the practical suspension of monarchy. In the years 1349 and 1350, moreover, she suffered a blow which paralysed her for many generations. The bubonic plague, generally known as the Black Death, but in Norway termed the Great Mortality, was brought to Bergen from England, and carried off one-third of the Norwegians. As Sweden and Denmark fared no better, the exhausted North passed under the financial sway of Lübeck and the Hansards, whose settlement in Bergen resembled an independent

country's marine by granting privileges to the Hansatic towns of Germany. Their association of merchants gradually gained a complete mastery over the commerce of Norway.

His sons, Erik and Haakon V., in turn succeeded. They became embroiled in a desolating struggle with Denmark,

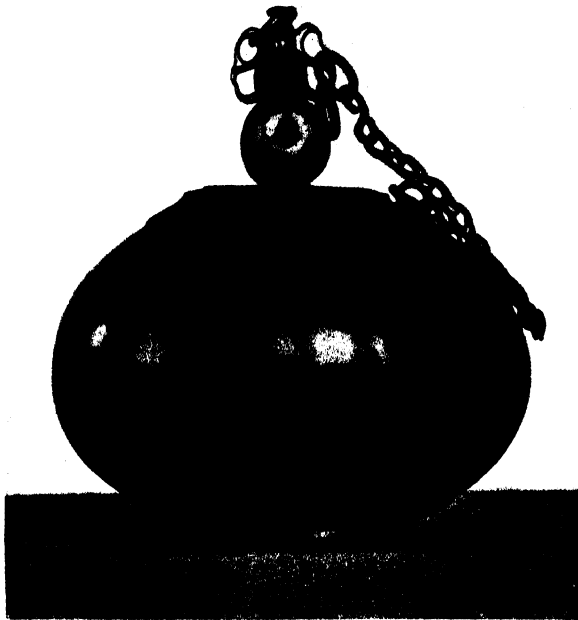


*Painted specially for this work*

GRIFFENFELDT'S REPRIEVE ON THE SCAFFOLD.

*[By J. H. Valde.*

Count Peder Griffenfeldt (1635-1699) was born at Copenhagen and educated at Queen's College, Oxford. He obtained his first political post as king's secretary in 1665, and became Frederick III.'s most trusted counsellor. From 1673 his rise to power was extraordinarily rapid, till he reached the height of his fame three years later. Owing to the jealousy of his political enemies, Count Peder was arrested on a trumped-up charge of high treason. Although this charge could not be proved, he was condemned to death, but on the scaffold his sentence was commuted to life-long imprisonment.



[Victoria and Albert Museum.

A snuff-box made from a cone, pierced at the top with a hole covered by a silver mount with a foliated rim, into which fits a stopper attached by a chain. (Norwegian.)

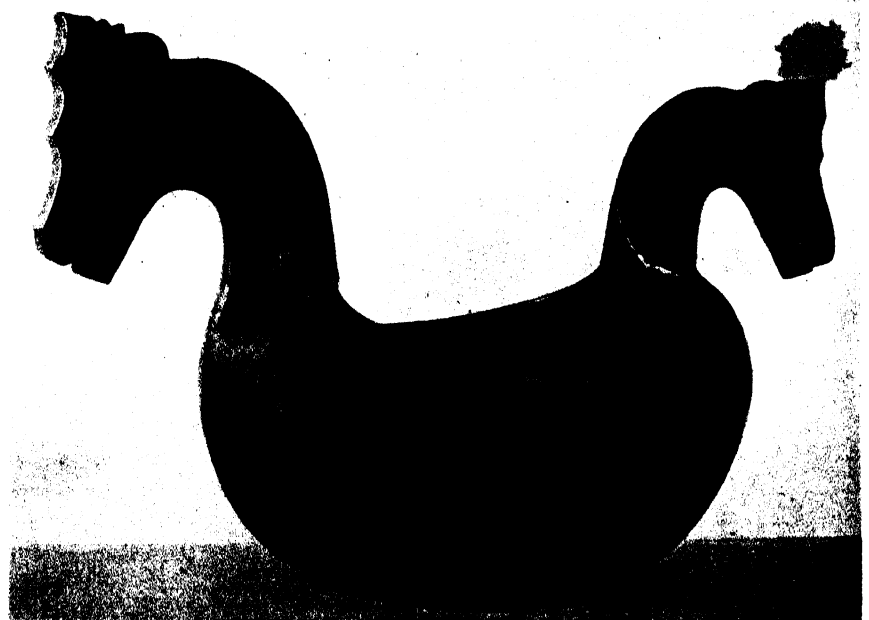
laws and customs. But from the first the aristocracy of Denmark and Sweden, and the distaste of both Swedes and Norwegians for the semblance of Danish rule, jeopardized her scheme. For fifteen years, indeed, her vigorous influence disguised the inherent weakness of the Kalmar union. But after her death in 1412, Norway and Sweden chafed against the feeble absentee monarchy of Erik. An unrelieved series of troubles—peasant revolts in Sweden and Norway, an unsuccessful war against the Lübeck League, disaffection even in Denmark—drove him to resign his crowns and turn pirate (1440).

The record of the next century (1440–1537) is the melancholy story of Norway's decline from an independent kingdom into a mere province of Denmark. Her poverty and impotence were conspicuous when she meekly accepted Christian I. of Oldenburg, whom the Danes had chosen king, and renounced the Swedish monarch who had been crowned at Trondhjem. In 1449 the

state. "When they enter Norwegian harbours," according to an official account, "they ill-treat, wound and kill people, and go their way without troubling to make amends to those whom they have wronged." War proved no remedy, for the Norwegians were weak on land and the Germans supreme by sea.

The German peril, which darkened all the North, played no small part in promoting a union of the three Scandinavian crowns. The royal houses and other great native families had largely intermarried, and several temporary dynastic unions between two of the realms had already come about. An able princess, Margaret, made the work complete. She was the daughter of Waldemar IV. of Denmark, the widow of one Norwegian king, Haakon V., the mother of the short-lived king of Denmark and Norway, Olav, and the liberator of Sweden from the Germans. Her great-nephew, Erik of Pomerania, was chosen king by each of the three kingdoms, and in 1397 received an imposing triple coronation at Kalmar.

Margaret designed a permanent dynastic union, the king to rule in each country according to its own



[Victoria and Albert Museum.

The surface of the bowl is painted with floral scroll-work in green and yellow on a terra-cotta ground, and carved with rosettes and geometrical designs. The handles are in the form of horse's head. (Norwegian.)

Norwegians declared that "these two realms, Sweden and Norway, which God has joined together, shall never be put asunder." But in the very next year they covenanted with the House of Oldenburg that Norway and Denmark should "hereafter remain and be together in brotherly love and friendship and none be lord over the other." They remained, indeed, together under the Oldenburg kings for some three hundred and sixty-four years (1450-1814), but in no abiding sense as equals. The richer southern land inevitably neglected the interests of its distant and backward northern colleague. Already thrice a king, Christian I. became in 1460 Duke of Schleswig and Count of Holstein, being thus lord of more acres than any northern monarch since Canute. But his poverty compelled him to pawn the Orkneys and Shetlands to the King of Scots (1469), and his weakness compelled him to tolerate the slaughter of the chief officials of Bergen by the Germans in time of peace.



*From the painting]*

*[By Cederström.*

## CONVEYING THE BODY OF CHARLES XII. BACK TO SWEDEN.

Charles XII. of Sweden laid siege to Frederikshald in Norway during the winter of 1718. While with his army in front of the walls of the fortress the king was killed by a musket-ball, 11th of December. The siege was raised, and the soldiers returned to Sweden bearing with them the dead body of their king, which was buried at Stockholm.

Twice Norway threatened in vain to throw off the yoke of the Oldenburgs. King Hans (1481-1513) was opposed at the outset of his reign by the clergy, but purchased the support of the nobles by a charter of privileges. After the overthrow of his army in 1500 by the brave peasants of Ditmarsh, the Norwegians revolted, but Prince Christian smote them down. "There are men," says the Swedish historian Geijer, "who, like storm-birds before the tempest, are the harbingers of great convulsions." Among such Christian II. was pre-eminent.

This strong, lawless, comely athlete, glowing at once with love for men of low estate and with hatred of the nobles, struck hard for a real autocracy and forfeited all his crowns. The most bloody and also the most fruitful of his achievements belong to the history of Sweden, which, in resisting him, became an independent state ruled by the famous house of Vasa. In Norway, where he had been viceroy (1506-11), he proved himself the peasants' friend, and—influenced perhaps by the Dutch mother of his mistress—





A coffee-pot of wood, with an upturned spout and bound round the neck and base with bands of cane. The dome-shaped lid is surmounted by a knob. (Norwegian.)

The triumph of Christian III. completed Norway's downfall. Her last archbishop, Olaf Engelbrechtsson of Trondhjem, dared to defy the new monarch and the new faith; but a few hundred men sufficed to beat down all resistance. Thenceforward she was ruled by Danish officials as a province of Denmark. Norwegian law remained valid, but Danish became the official and literary language. The Reformation, with all its plundering and violence, was forced upon her, and the shrine of St. Olav was melted down at Copenhagen. In the undying feud between Sweden and Denmark which the Vasa revolt had occasioned Norway became the chief sufferer. Under Frederick II. (1559-88) her towns and churches were destroyed in the dreary and futile Seven Years' War of the North (1553-70). An ignorant and barbarous countryside, and towns whose annals recorded chiefly fire and pestilence, made up Norway in the age of the Reformation.

The land owed much, however, to the greatest of the Oldenburgs—Christian IV., who reigned for sixty years (1588-1648). The untiring energy, the restless imagination and the all-embracing sympathy which have made him the hero of the Danes all prompted him to great undertakings in the majestic yet suffering Norway. Almost every year he sailed to her coasts and fraternized in his swift, jovial fashion with her people. All her institutions underwent improvement, but most beneficent of all was the new sympathy of the government. Under Christian IV. Norway ceased to be a mere preserve for fortune-hunting Danes. The stimulus given to mining and town-building, moreover, conferred permanent benefits upon the country. The silver-mines of Kongsberg, the copper mines of Røros, and the cities of modern Christiania and of Christiansand owe their origin to this vigorous king. The price to be paid for such progress was a share in the burden

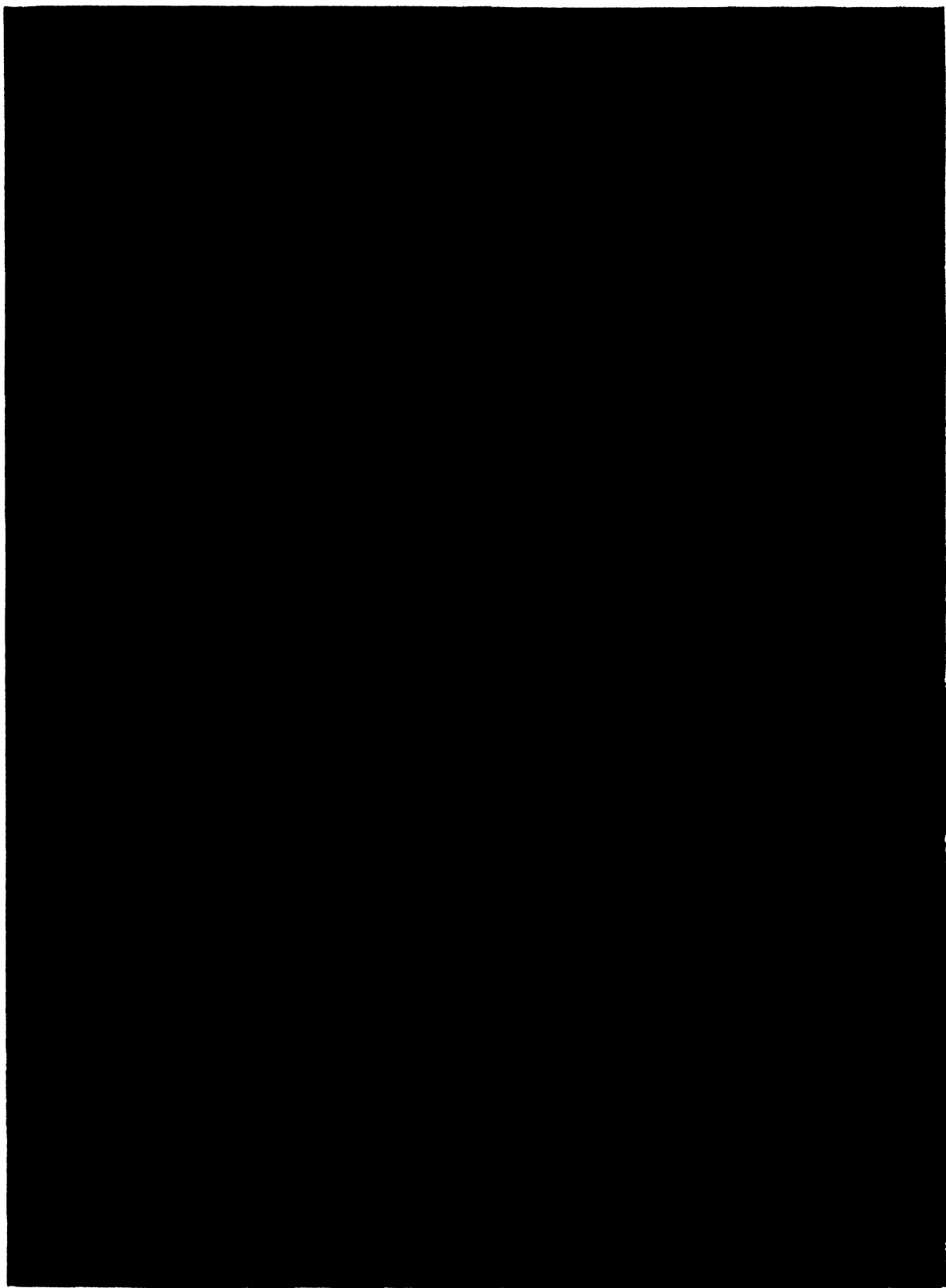
authorized the Dutch to compete with the hated Germans. Norway, however, had ceased to be really independent, and in 1524 she followed the lead of Denmark by deposing Christian and accepting his uncle, Frederick, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, as her king. For three centuries (1513-1814) Christians and Fredericks alternate on the throne of Denmark and Norway, and in Denmark the practice still continues.

Christian II. survived his deposition by thirty-five years, during twelve of which he remained a political factor of importance. In 1532 he vainly assailed Norway with a mercenary force. Two years later, when Frederick I. died, he became the candidate of Lübeck, Roman Catholicism and the Danish burghers and peasants against the nobles and the Lutheran faith. After a fierce and prolonged struggle, the nobles triumphed. Christian III. succeeded to his father's throne; the Lutheran became the State religion; the power both of Lübeck and of the clergy was shattered.



[Victoria and Albert Museum.

This wooden tankard has a body covered with floral sprays, the handle and lid also decorated with floral designs, and three feet in the form of buds. (Norwegian.)



*Painted specially for this work*

#### THE RETURN OF THE VIKINGS.

*by J. H. Valda*

A characteristic picture of the return home of a Viking fleet after a minor raid. The comparatively small size of the ships and their crew seem to denote that the expedition was not of a very important nature. The foremost ship is probably nearing the harbour, as the man at the stern is evidently giving directions for shortening sail, while the crew can be seen making ready to land.



of the wars into which the king's restless vigour plunged his dominions. The so-called War of Kalmar (1611-13) with Sweden was waged in part for the recovery of Finnmark, a tributary region which Norway had lost.

The war, in which the youthful Gustavus Adolphus won his spurs, was crowned with success, but Norway's part in it was small. The tragedy of Colonel Sinclair and a troop of Scots, who were trapped and crushed among her mountains, has, however, lived in the memory of the nation. In the great deeds of the Thirty Years' War (1618-48) Norway took no share. The onslaught of the Swedes in 1643, however, involved her against her will, and the peace of 1645 cost her the barren border-provinces of Jämtland and Herjedalen. For the failure of the Danish war of revenge she paid a far higher price. The peace of 1658 resembled a partition of Denmark. Norway's share of the loss consisted of the counties of Baahus, stretching for almost one hundred miles along the coast northwards from near Gothenburg, a fertile region, which Harald the Fairhaired had won from the Swedes, and of Trondhjem, a wide area,

whose loss would have brought down her population below four hundred thousand souls, and placed her towards Sweden in a relation like that of Portugal towards Spain. Next year, however, a new war gave her a new opportunity. Both in attack and defence her sons fought valiantly, and by the Peace of Copenhagen (1660) she recovered Trondhjem.

These wars led also to a revolu-

representatives of the two non-noble estates at the Diet of Copenhagen of 1660 offered the king an hereditary crown. The nobles could not oppose the offer, but its acceptance broke their power. At one stroke the weakest monarchy in Europe became the most absolute. Non-noble officials were appointed by the king, both for central and for local government, and the aristocratic council disappeared. To the Norwegians this meant equality with the Danes, and equality under a monarchy which, if in theory unfettered, was in fact paternal. The loyal sons of Norway gained the reputation of believing that the king could do no wrong, and that if treated with injustice, they must address themselves to him.

Absolute monarchy, however, in the seventeenth century meant costly royal pomp, and too often favouritism and war. Christian V. (1670-1699) could not resist the temptation to assail Sweden in the hope of reconquering the provinces which Frederick III. had lost. Four bloody campaigns led only to a confirmation of the loss by the treaty of Lund (1679). His son, Frederick IV. (1699-1730), joined in the confederacy against Charles XII., both in 1700 and again in 1709. By the Peace of Frederiksborg in 1720 Denmark gained little in return for her many sacrifices; but her neighbour remained powerless to harm her for many years. The Norwegians had added two deathless names to the roll of their

tion in the government. The Oldenburg line, elected rather than strictly hereditary, had possessed little power in comparison with that of the Danish nobles. These had proved themselves anything but patriotic, while Frederick III. and the burghers of Copenhagen had bravely repulsed the enemy. Led by the valiant burgo master, Hans Nansen, and by Bishop Svane, the repre-



The crown used at Trondhjem Cathedral for the coronation of Prince Charles of Denmark as Haakon VII. of Norway.



*From a painting*

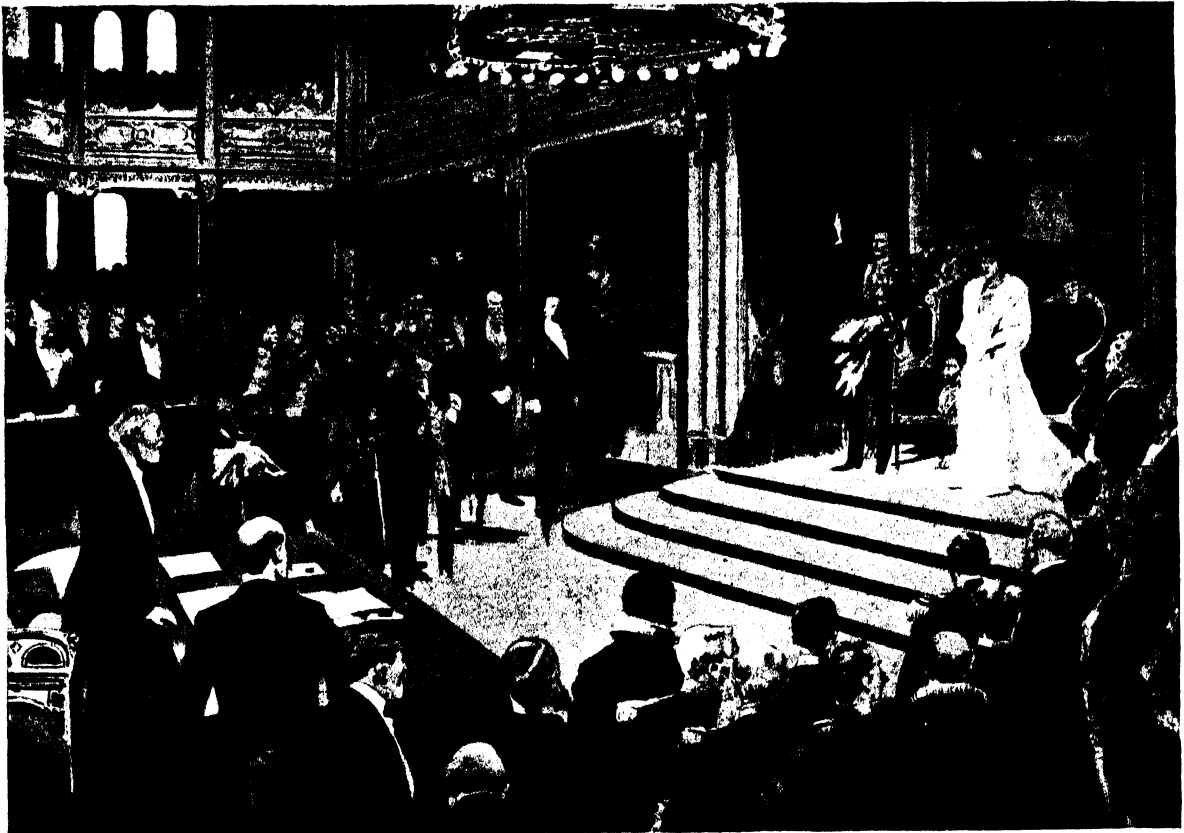
#### AN ACTION BETWEEN A NORWEGIAN AND ENGLISH WARSHIPS, 1704.

*[By A. Berg.]*

In the reigns of Frederick IV. and Carl XII. Norway occupied an unenviable position amongst the nations of Europe. Her shipping had been destroyed by Danish aggression and she was a prey to the exactions of her then powerful neighbour Sweden. During the latter part of the seventeenth and early in the eighteenth century the political status of Norway was a matter of anxiety to the sea-powers, England and Holland, who viewed with concern the menace to their maritime supremacy through the ambitious wars of Sweden. The incident depicted is a fight between a Norwegian ship flying the Swedish flag and English warships.

national heroes. Ivar Huitfeldt, in 1710, blew up his ship with five hundred men rather than endanger their comrades, and Peter Wessel, ennobled as Tordenskjold, performed a hundred daring feats of seamanship before his early death in 1720. It was while vainly struggling to conquer Norway that Charles XII. met his death (1718).

The death of Charles XII. inaugurated for Norway nearly three generations of peace (1720-1807). These years formed a second adolescence for the nation. Population almost doubled; trade, especially in timber, grew; shipping increased twenty-fold; learning and literature began. Ludwig Holberg, of Bergen (1684-1754), won lasting European fame by his comedies, and roused the pride of the Norwegians both by his life and writings. Prior to 1763, Norway possessed no newspaper of her own. But about



KING HAAKON TAKING THE OATH, 1905.

On the 18th of November, 1905, the Storting unanimously elected Prince Charles of Denmark as King of Norway, he taking the name of Haakon VII. The king took the oath to the Norwegian Constitution before the members of the Storting on November 26th, the day after his entry into the capital, Christiania, with his consort Queen Maud, youngest daughter of Edward VII.

that time the Society of the Sciences was formed at Trondhjem, and it was to Trondhjem that Struensee, the reformer of Denmark, sent in 1771, when he hoped to reorganize the University of Copenhagen.

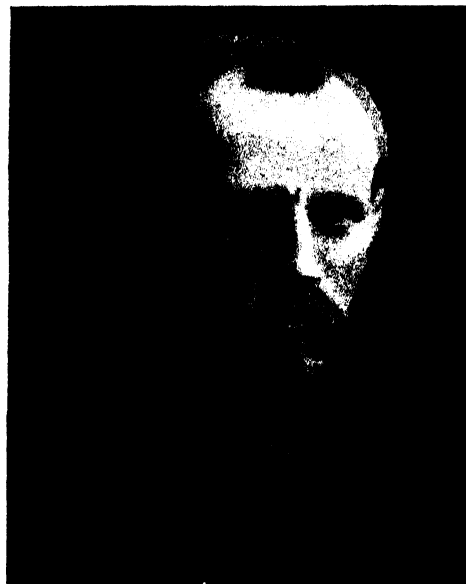
In religion, the chief source of her education, Norway experienced all the indifference and formalism which characterized the eighteenth century. Religiosity, rather than religion, was favoured by the ultra-Puritan Christian VI. (1730-46), who turned Holberg for the time being from a playwright into a historian, and the freethinker Struensee merely shocked the Norwegians. At the close of the century, however, Hans Nielsen Hauge did for Norway something of what John Wesley had done for the United Kingdom. Studiously avoiding any breach with the national Church, although at the instance of the priests he was imprisoned for seven years, he preached to the people throughout the length and breadth of Norway, and rendered the old indifference of both pastors and flock impossible.

As we have seen, the rare and prolonged peace had in many respects created a new Norway. But the growth of numbers, wealth and knowledge increased the repugnance of the Norwegians to their



Roald Amundsen was born at Smaalenene, Norway, 1872. He is a famous explorer, and has made several journeys into the Polar regions, the most recent being the Norwegian Antarctic Expedition under his leadership.

dependence on Denmark. They were a race of free peasants, but the accent of their supreme government was determined by the personal preferences of rulers who knew little of their institutions and nothing of their country. Under Christian VI. they were constrained to pietism; under his son, who was no pietist, to extravagance; and under his grand-



Fridtjof Nansen, born in 1861 near Christiania, is another notable Norwegian explorer of the Polar regions. His most memorable achievement was the North Pole Expedition, 1893-96, when he reached the highest altitude until then attained.

son, to provincialism. For many years they were permitted to import corn only from Denmark, and therefore stood in danger of famine when the Danish harvest failed. Their students must pursue learning in distant and half-alien Copenhagen. Their soldiers, sailors and traders were mere counters to be moved or sacrificed in accordance with the needs of Denmark.

This distasteful vassalage was strongly illuminated by the events of 1807-14. For fifteen years Denmark had contrived to keep clear of the European struggle which followed on the French Revolution.

Suddenly, however, England struck hard at Copenhagen, in the hope of rending the net in which Napoleon was striving to enfold her. The result was for Norway seven years of war with England, and in 1808 war with Sweden also.

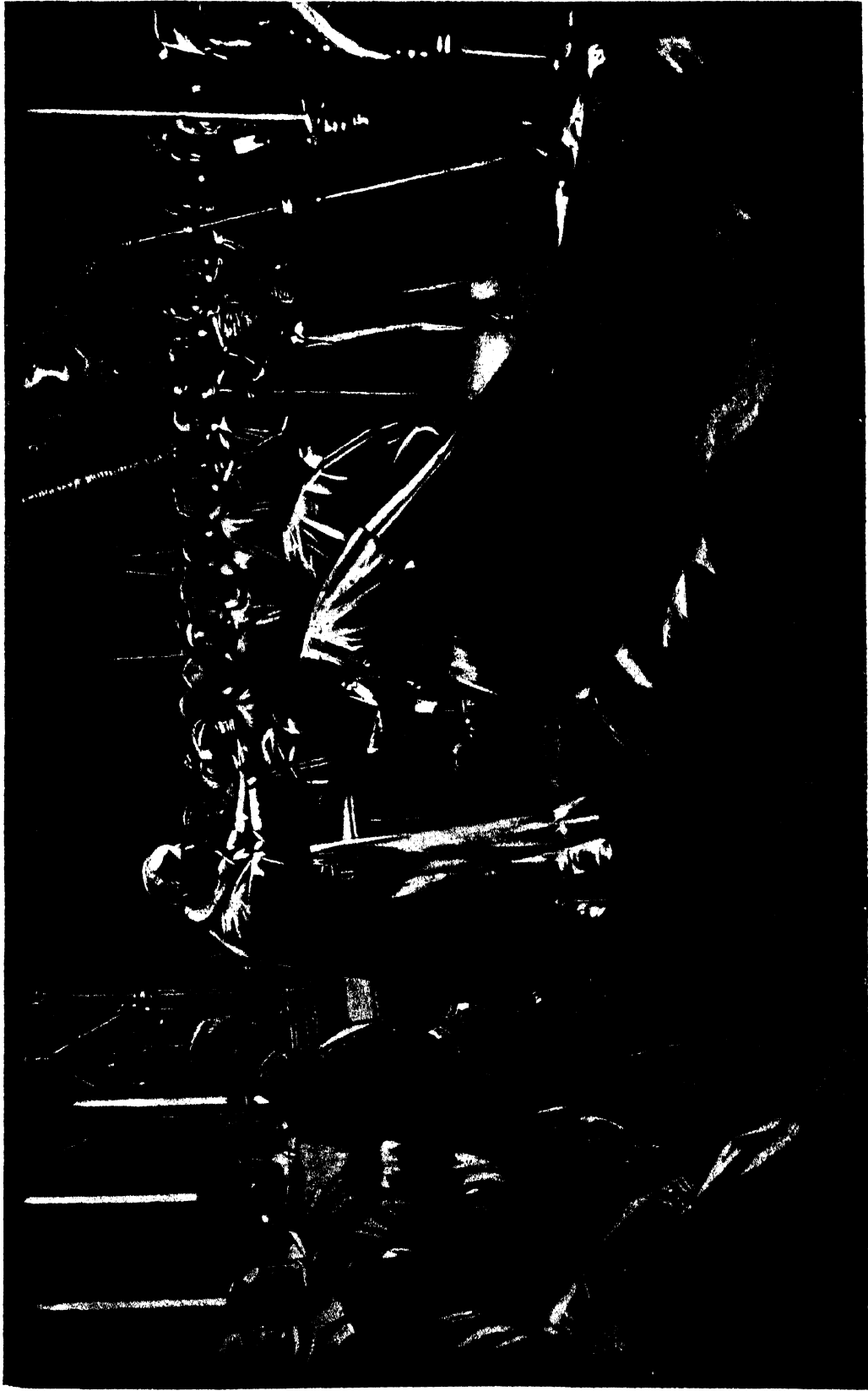
War led at once to an increase of Norwegian independence. "The Augustenburger,"



Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson (1832-1910). This eminent Norwegian poet, novelist and dramatist, was also a journalist and took an active part in politics. In 1903 he gained the Nobel prize for literature.



Henrik Ibsen (1826-1906). A Norwegian dramatic and lyric poet, but far more celebrated as a dramatist. Nearly all his plays reflect his temperament, rendered gloomy and bitter by the reverses and humiliations he suffered.



#### CORONATION OF KING HAAKON, 1906.

Haakon VII, of Norway was crowned on June 22nd, 1906, in Trondhjem Cathedral. The king, clothed in the royal vestment, knelt before the throne, when the crown was put upon his head by the Bishop of Trondhjem and in his hands were placed the sceptre and orb. The actual moment of crowning was signalized by a fanfare of trumpets, a salvo of artillery was fired by the batteries outside, and a royal salute by the warships in the harbour.



Prince Christian Augustus, ruled the land from Christiania, not from Copenhagen, and proved himself a genial and martial commander-in-chief. The Swedes were driven over the frontier, and on the land side Norway gained peace. By sea, however, the English power proved overwhelming.

Norway lost her trade, her shipping and her food supply. In one year the crops failed for lack of heat, and men baked bread of bark, as in the famines of the Middle Ages. So strong was the national ambition, however, that in 1811 the University of Christiania was founded by public subscription.

A people thus situated was even less fitted than in the past to be a mere appanage of the Danish Crown. With Napoleon's defeat at Leipzig fell the prop of Frederick's throne. To save his dynasty, the king, by the Peace of



A NORWEGIAN MAN-OF-WAR.

Norway's long seaboard necessitates efficient means for guarding it. Her navy consists of coast-defence vessels, battleships, armoured cruisers and torpedo craft. The warship depicted is the "Tordenskjold," an ironclad of three thousand five hundred tons, launched in 1897 on the Tyne, with a crew of two hundred and forty-eight officers and men.

Oldenburgs had forfeited every vestige of hereditary right, and that Norway stood free to choose whom she would as king. In April, 1814, one hundred and twelve representatives of the nation assembled at Eidsvold, some forty miles north of Christiania, to draw up a Constitution. Under conditions of rural simplicity but inspiring brotherhood the work was swiftly carried through. On May 17th, an anniversary which is for Norway what that of the Fall of the Bastille is for France,

Kiel (January, 1814), ceded Norway to the Swedes, retaining Greenland, Iceland and the Faroes, her ancient dependencies. The Peace of Kiel opened a new and glorious page in Norwegian history. Challenging the right either of the Oldenburgs or of the Allied Powers to dispose of them like sheep, the people, less than a million strong, rallied to the side of their viceroy, Prince Christian Frederick. They, however, claimed, and he conceded, that the

the Constitution, or fundamental law, was completed, and Christian Frederick elected king. The Eidsvold assembly deserves its high renown, for it had gained for Norway such freedom that her parliament, the Great Meeting, or Storting, could in ordinary cases legislate against the veto of the Crown.

Within a few weeks the Norwegians were compelled to defend their newly-won liberties by force of arms. Marshal Bernadotte, then Crown Prince of Sweden, strode swiftly northwards with the seasoned army which had helped to overthrow Napoleon, and assailed the rebel nation by land and sea. The men of Norway proved braver than their king; but Bernadotte, always nervous in statesmanship, accepted their Constitution by the Convention of Moss (August, 1814). In October the Storting succeeded in making good the claim of Norway to be regarded as an independent kingdom. Christian Frederick resigned the crown and the king of Sweden was chosen in his stead. In 1815 the Union between Sweden and Norway was legally arranged. The two kingdoms were to have a common king, a common rule of suc-

sion, and a common Foreign Office, and in case of war they stood pledged to mutual defence. Their administration, their law, their fleet and army, their finances, and even their flag, were, however, to remain distinct.

The Union thus inaugurated endured for ninety years. It was never subjected to the test of war. Under it Norway's growth in population, wealth, communications and learning surpassed all precedent. In consequence, even the loose primacy of Sweden became more and more distasteful, and after a long and bitter controversy the fragile bond was snapped.

Such is the argument of Norwegian history in the nineteenth century. The successive kings of the House of Bernadotte proved, on the whole, sympathetic to Norwegian aspirations; but their position was such that they could not possibly satisfy two mutually jealous peoples. The Norwegians, tenacious controversialists, first made their Fundamental Law secure, and then carried obstacle after obstacle that stood between them and the independent democracy to which they aspired. They abolished all titles of nobility, reduced the royal veto on legislation to a shadow, secured the abolition of their



HAAKON VII.

Born 1872, is the second son of Frederick III. of Denmark, and accepted the Norwegian crown in 1905. Prior to his coronation he was known as Prince Charles of Denmark. He married Princess Maud, youngest daughter of Edward VII., and their son, Prince Olav, was born in 1903.

vice-royalty, and purged their national flag of the emblem of the Union. The two countries were already entirely distinct in all domestic affairs, and the customs frontier between them was jealously maintained. Towards the close of the century the Norwegians made a determined effort to secure complete independence also in their relations with foreign nations. To this end they demanded a separate consular organization, and in the course of the resulting controversy the



One of the exports of importance from Norway is ice. In the winter large blocks of ice are sawn out from the frozen lakes; these blocks are sent to various ports, from where they are shipped abroad. The scene depicts the arrival and unloading of a Norwegian ice-ship at a London wharf.

Storting unanimously deposed the king (June, 1905). For a few months the two nations stood on the brink of war. With admirable moderation, however, the Swedes demanded only that the question of separation should be referred to the Norwegian people.

On Sunday, August 13th, therefore, the manhood of Norway declared its will by a solemn and secret ballot. The result was an overwhelming affirmative, and, it may be hoped, the beginning of a new era for the sister nations.

The House of Bernadotte declined the offer of the new Norwegian crown, which therefore fell to Haakon VII., a prince of Denmark and the husband of an English bride. An intimate convention with Sweden provided for joint defence, and the neutrality of Norway was guaranteed by the neighbouring Great Powers.

Side by side with the movement for complete national independence, the education, enrichment and

democratization of Norway had made striking progress. During the nineteenth century Norway became a country surpassed by none in the widespread diffusion of education and of the limited national wealth. From 1884 onwards power has been wielded by the peasants, and universal suffrage for males and females has now been established. A striking illustration of the modern Norwegian spirit may be found in the efforts made to call into being a language differing materially from the Danish. It is, however, in the fields of literature, science, and of geographical discovery that the greatest glory has been won.

# DATES OF SWEDISH HISTORY

DYNASTY.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Early Kings.	830 862	Ansgar first visits Sweden. Rurik and the Variags found the Russian realm.
Line of Stenkil.	1066 1111	Death of Stenkil. Civil war. Jämtland becomes Norwegian.
Lines of Sverker and Erik.	1157 1164 1187 1248 1249	King (Saint) Erik leads a crusade to Finland. Archbishopric of Upsala founded. Stockholm founded. Ecclesiastical assembly at Skenege. Second crusade to Finland. Conquests extended.
The Folkunger Line.	1266 1290 1293 1319 1323 1335 1350 1371 1373 1389	Death of Birger the Earl. Death of King Magnus Ladulas. General progress realized. Third crusade to Finland. Colonization follows. Dynastic union with Norway (to 1371). Peace with the Russians at Nöteborg. Finland Swedish. Abolition of slavery. Constitutional progress follows. The Black Death. First royal capitulation. Death of Saint Bridget. Battle of Falköping. Germans defeated.
Alternating Union. and purely Swedish Rulers.	1397 1434 1435 1439 1471 1477 1483 1495-97 1501-12 1520 1521	Margaret, having restored order, effects the Union of Kalmar. Engelbrekt rebels. The first general Diet. King Erik deposed in favour of the Administrator. Sten Sture victorious at Brunkeberg. End of civil war. Upsala University founded. The Recess of Kalmar. Russian war. War with Denmark. Christian II. conquers Sweden. The Blood Bath. Gustavus Vasa Administrator. War of Liberation.
The Vasa Line.	1523-60 1527 1534-37 1555-57 1561 1563-70 1569 1580 1593 1598 1600 1609-17 1611-13 1617 1621-29 1626 1630-32 1634 1634-48 1643-45 1648 1654	Gustavus rules as King. Diet of Vesterås. Reformation adopted. Rebellions follow. Sweden shares in the War of Danish Succession. Decline of Lübeck. Russian war. Sweden gains Esthonia. Seven Years' War of the North, followed by Russian war (to 1583). Erik XIV. deposed. John rules as king to 1592. John's son Sigismund elected King in Poland. The Upsala Meeting. Reformation confirmed. Sigismund flees from Sweden after defeat at Stangebro. Charles IX., replacing Sigismund, executes his adherents at Linköping. Sixty Years' War of Succession begins against the Polish Vasa. Russian war. Sweden gains Ingria, etc. Danish war. Gustavus Adolphus succeeds to the throne. Ordinance regulating Diet of Four Estates. Victorious campaigns against Poland and truce. House of Nobles regulated and based on birth. German campaigns and death of Gustavus Adolphus. The Form of Government. Axel Oxenstierna directs Swedish policy in the Thirty Years' War. Danish war. Territorial acquisitions in Scandinavia. Peace of Westphalia. Territorial acquisitions in Germany. Sweden approaches bankruptcy. Queen Christina abdicates.
The Palatinate Line.	1655-58 1658 1660 1668 1675 1676 1679 1680-82 1697 1700-18 1719-21 1741-43	Charles X. at war with Poland and other Powers. Peace of Roskilde. Great gains from Denmark. Renewed war. Death of Charles X. Peace made at Oliva and Copenhagen. University of Lund founded. Alliance with France brings disastrous war with Brandenburg and Denmark. Battle of Lund. Charles XI. victorious. Peace made at Nymwegen, Lund and St. Germain. Lost lands regained. Charles XI. seizes absolute power and makes drastic reforms. Accession of Charles XII. He is declared of age. Wars and death of Charles XII. Downfall of Sweden. Peace made. Loss of Bremen, Verden, much of Pomerania and the Baltic Provinces. Russian war. Small territorial loss by Treaty of Åbo.
The Holstein-Gottorp Line.	1757-62 1772 1788-90 1792 1800 1805 1809 1810 1814 1815	Sweden takes part in the Seven Years' War. Gustavus III. effects a monarchical revolution, completed in 1789. War with Russia and the Danes. Gustavus III. murdered. Sweden, as in 1780, joins in the Armed Neutrality. Gustavus IV. joins the Coalition against France. Gustavus IV. deposed. Autocracy abolished. Finland lost by Treaty of Frederikshamn. Bernadotte becomes heir-apparent. He reigns as Charles XIV., 1818-44. War in Holstein and Norway. Union with Norway effected. Act of Union accepted by Sweden and Norway. German lands ceded to Prussia.
The Bernadotte Line.	1812 1838 1840 1842-50 1844 1848 1855 1866 1887 1892 1897 1901 1905 1914	Göta canal, from Stockholm to Gothenburg, opened. Riots in Stockholm roused by persecution of the press. Climax of opposition in the Diet against the King's government. System of primary education elaborated. Oscar I. inaugurates a liberal monarchy. Growth of Scandinavianism. Sweden supports Denmark against the Germans. England and France guarantee Sweden against Russia. Free Trade established. Annual Diets of two elected Chambers arranged for. Rise of Agricultural Party. Protectionists secure a majority in the Diet. "Extraordinary" Diet augments the national defences. Jubilee of Oscar II. celebrated by great exhibition at Stockholm. Universal service introduced. Eight months with the colours compulsory. "Extraordinary" Diet insists upon referendum in Norway. Union dissolved. Gustavus V. upholds the initiative of the Crown in national defence. Peasants support him.

## CHAPTER XXV

*THE SWEDES. By W. F. REDDAWAY, M.A.*

THE regions surrounding the great Mälär lake, on which Stockholm stands, are perhaps more isolated from the main current of affairs than is the cradle of any other great European race. Although they appear to have been the home of man for more than ten thousand years, the historian can hardly trace their record for more than ten centuries. At the dawn of the Christian era, but more than eight centuries before Sweden received the Gospel, the fertile southern plains of the peninsula formed the home.

*Painted specially for this work**[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]***RURIK DEPARTS FOR THE LAND OF THE SLAVS, A.D. 862.**

Dissensions amongst the Slav and Finnish tribes, who inhabited the country between Lake Ladoga and the Upper Dnieper, led them in A.D. 862 to invite the Swedish chieftains, Rurik and his two brothers, Princes of Rus, to come and govern them. Rurik established his capital at Novgorod, from which he conquered the surrounding territory, whilst he also opened up trade with his native land by way of the rivers.

not of Swedes, but of Danes. North of these Danes dwelt chiefly Goths, in Eastern and Western Gothland. Still further north, beyond a great belt of crags and forests and the Mälär itself, were the lands of the Swedes proper, whose colonists spread slowly southwards to meet the Goths. Such colonization of Scandinavian wastes received a great extension from the "wanderings of the nations" in the fifth and sixth centuries, and gradually the Swedish mainland became peopled. The inevitable result, since the race was fruitful and the land barren, appeared in the emigrations of the Vikings. The less tractable, moreover, resented the rise of kings. Swedish emigrants naturally turned to the eastern shores of the Baltic, especially to the Finnish coasts. In the ninth century, Rurik and other Swedes founded at Novgorod and Kiev new states, which swiftly coalesced into a power strong enough to threaten Byzantium. Swedes became the bodyguards of the Emperors, and the riches of Wisby owed their origin to the trade between



*Painted specially for this work]*

#### ERIK THE SAINT LANDS ON THE COAST OF FINLAND, 1157.

*[by F. Le Queene.*

King Erik IX. of Sweden (Saint Erik) at the head of a considerable army, and accompanied by the Bishop of Upsala, an Englishman, invaded Finland in 1157. The Finns were conquered and baptized, and Bishop Henry with some soldiers and priests were left behind by Erik to confirm the conquest and complete the conversion. After some time the bishop was killed, and, canonized, became St. Henry, the patron saint of Finland.



CHRISTOPHER III.

In 1440 the Duke of Bavaria was elected as successor to his deposed uncle, Erik VII, of Denmark, and became Christopher III. Charles Knutsson resigned his office as Administrator of Sweden in favour of Christopher, who in the same year became King of Sweden. In 1442 Norway also came under his sway, but in 1448 Christopher, while preparing an attack upon the Hanse Towns, suddenly died.

their homeland and Kiev. Even amid the Alps, it is believed that the offspring of the Vikings still survive.

Contact with Christian nations could hardly fail to shake the faith of the Swedes in their ancient gods, among whom Thor was chief. Their full conversion, however, proved long and difficult. Between their needy land and Christian countries nature had imposed the sternest frontiers, while within Sweden unity, political or natural, was far to seek. Her early history consists largely of struggles between the Goths and Swedes to give her a single king. The journey from her southern frontier to her centre demanded a month of toil. So late as in the year 1177, a monarch risked starvation in journeying from east to west across his barren realm.

In the ninth century Ansgar, the apostle of the North, twice conducted missions on the shores of the Mälar, and his successor in the bishopric of Bremen carried on the work. In this, the great age of the Vikings, however, history records chiefly the fluctuating strife between the Danish and Swedish rulers, until about the year 1000 they combined to crush Olav Trygvessön at Svolder. Saint Olav re-established Norwegian independence and propagated Christianity in the North, while he was seconded by Saint Sigfrid and other missionaries from England. Yet the old faith

still ruled in Sweden when, about 1060, the family of her early kings became extinct.

The weakening of the ancient faith and the extinction of the ancient dynasty led to a change in the Swedish constitution which was destined profoundly to influence the future. The Crown became elective. At the same time, the primacy of the Upsala region, long the focus of heathendom, was challenged by the Christians throughout an obscure period of civil strife. Gradually, but only gradually, the new faith won its way. The dawn of the thirteenth century still found loyal worshippers of Thor and Odin among the dalesmen of the North.

Substantially, indeed, the Cross had triumphed a generation earlier. Olof, the son of Erik, one of the conquerors of Olav Trygvessön in 1000, is said to have been the first Christian king of Sweden, and to have been baptized by Bishop Sigfrid. The upper or northern Swedes, however, resented such Gothic innovations. They came near to deposing Olof from the throne, and would not suffer his son and successor to bear the baptismal name of Jacob. King Stenkil maintained himself in power by supporting paganism among the Swedes and Christianity among the Goths; but after his death (c. 1066) the contest of faiths and races kept Sweden desolate. Two generations passed by before Sverker (1133-55) appeared as a Christian ruler of the whole country. Under him, the establishment of bishoprics, monasteries, schools and Peter's pence attested the Catholic progress. Tithe was instituted half a century later.

About the year 1157 King Erik led a crusade into Finland, and left the Englishman, Bishop Henry of Upsala, to organize a Swedish colony and a new church in that country. The bishop soon perished by the hand of a convert, but became the patron saint of Finland. In Sweden his master, Erik, gained

a like pre-eminence. During the reign of Charles, the son of Sverker (1161-67), Sweden not only obeyed one king, but also one earl, his lieutenant, and one archbishop, Stephen of Upsala. She had, however, by no means freed herself from the miseries of disputed successions. Late in the twelfth century, moreover, her coasts were raided by heathens, so that a fortress, Stockholm, had to be built to guard the eastern entrance to the Mälar.

Such frequent convulsions and the progress of a common faith tended alike to obscure the old divisions among the natives of Sweden and to promote the power of the magnates at the expense of the king. The Church, a foreign corporation, was likewise gaining power. Early in the thirteenth century she began to crown the kings. Franciscans and Dominicans entered the land. In 1248 the papal legate, William of Sabina, summoned a great assembly at Skeninge, and insisted on the celibacy of the clergy, the study of canon law, and the election of bishops by the cathedral chapters only.

In 1250 the male line of Saint Erik died out. By far the most important man in Sweden was Birger the Earl, a scion of the great Folkunger family and a conquering crusader in Finland. The husband of a princess, he was himself not of the blood royal. The Swedes therefore crowned his son Valdemar king, but looked to him, not in vain, for peace and good governance. In sixteen years he notably raised the culture and prestige of Sweden. In particular he restricted the ancient right of private vengeance, abolished trial by ordeal, and conferred upon women the right to share in the inheritance of estates. "Birger Jarl" is the traditional founder of Stockholm. Himself the last earl, he made his sons dukes. One of them, Magnus (1279-90), inherited his own force of character. Having dispossessed his brother Valdemar, and cajoled and crushed the rebel Folkungers, he proceeded to prove himself a really great king, and to earn by his paternal care the title of Ladulås, or "Locker of the Barn." The development



Peasants expressing joy for their work

[By J. H. Valda.

## 

Dalecarlia is a west midland region of Sweden, full of historical interest and possessing strong local characteristics. The inhabitants speak a peculiar dialect, wear a distinctive dress, and are very independent. In 1434, led by Engelbrekt, a miner, the peasants revolted against the oppressive tyranny of Erik XIV. of Denmark.



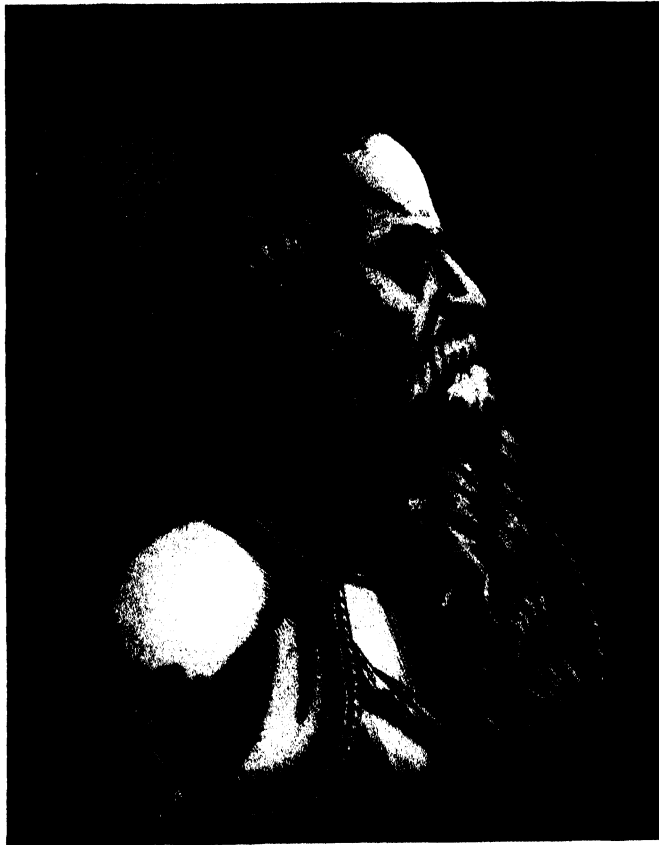
by King Magnus of the royal powers contributed not a little to the brilliant achievements of the Swedish monarchy centuries later. Like the greatest of the Vasa, he habitually called the nation to counsel. At this time, however, it was impracticable to assemble more than the bishops, the lawmen or yeomen-judges, and when needful, the gentry, while the Steward Marshal and Chancellor formed the inner circle of the central administration.

At such a council, held on an island in the Mälar about the year 1280, Magnus powerfully developed his policy. Having taken and exacted an oath from those present to observe his father's laws for upholding the internal peace of the realm, he proceeded to forbid the abuse of purveyance, by which the gentry had extorted from the peasants hospitality without payment, both for themselves and their attendants. He then attacked the problem of enabling Sweden to face her modern foes. These came no longer as sea-rovers, but as mounted spearmen encased in armour, and almost invulnerable to men fighting on foot. The king therefore offered immunity from taxation to all who would serve on horseback. This arrangement created a class of nobles distinct from the non-noble who paid taxes.

In 1281 the king extended immunity from taxation to the Church. In 1285 he claimed for himself and his council the right of making new laws in cases for which the ancient law had not provided. His pre-eminence among the

royal marriage before Birger, the son of Magnus, became of age to govern. Unhappily for Sweden, however, his two younger brothers grew up into unscrupulous and ambitious men. Having first induced the king to join with them in the treacherous murder of Torgil, by a second treason they flung him into prison (1306). The help of both Denmark and Norway failed to restore to him the whole of his kingdom, nor was a counterstroke, by which he made his brothers first his guests and then his prisoners, more successful. In 1319, his infant nephew, Magnus, son of Erik, wore the crowns both of Sweden and of Norway.

During the minority (1319-1332), the council ruled. They brought to a successful close Torgil's war with the Russians, thereby securing the development of Finland as a Swedish province. Under their rule, the Swedes spread northward, and the Lapps became tributary. But the temporary lapse of



GUSTAVUS VASA I.

Gustavus Vasa, born in Sweden in 1496, was taken as a hostage to Denmark in 1515. He escaped a year later with a price on his head, but in 1520 entered Stockholm at the head of an army and drove the infamous Danes from Sweden, of which country he became king in 1523. After a peaceful and prosperous rule Gustavus I. died in 1560.

ruled of the North was conspicuously manifested when the island of Gothland, with her mighty city Wisby, came under his sceptre of her own accord.

After the death of Magnus, Sweden was again fortunate in finding a strong regent in the Marshal, Torgil Knutsson. Following in the steps of Saint Erik and Birger Jarl, he led a third crusade into Finland. Two campaigns enabled him to stimulate the Swedish colonies, to found Viborg, and in spite of the opposition of the Russians, to conquer Western Carelia. The prospect of a union between Sweden and Denmark was advanced by a double

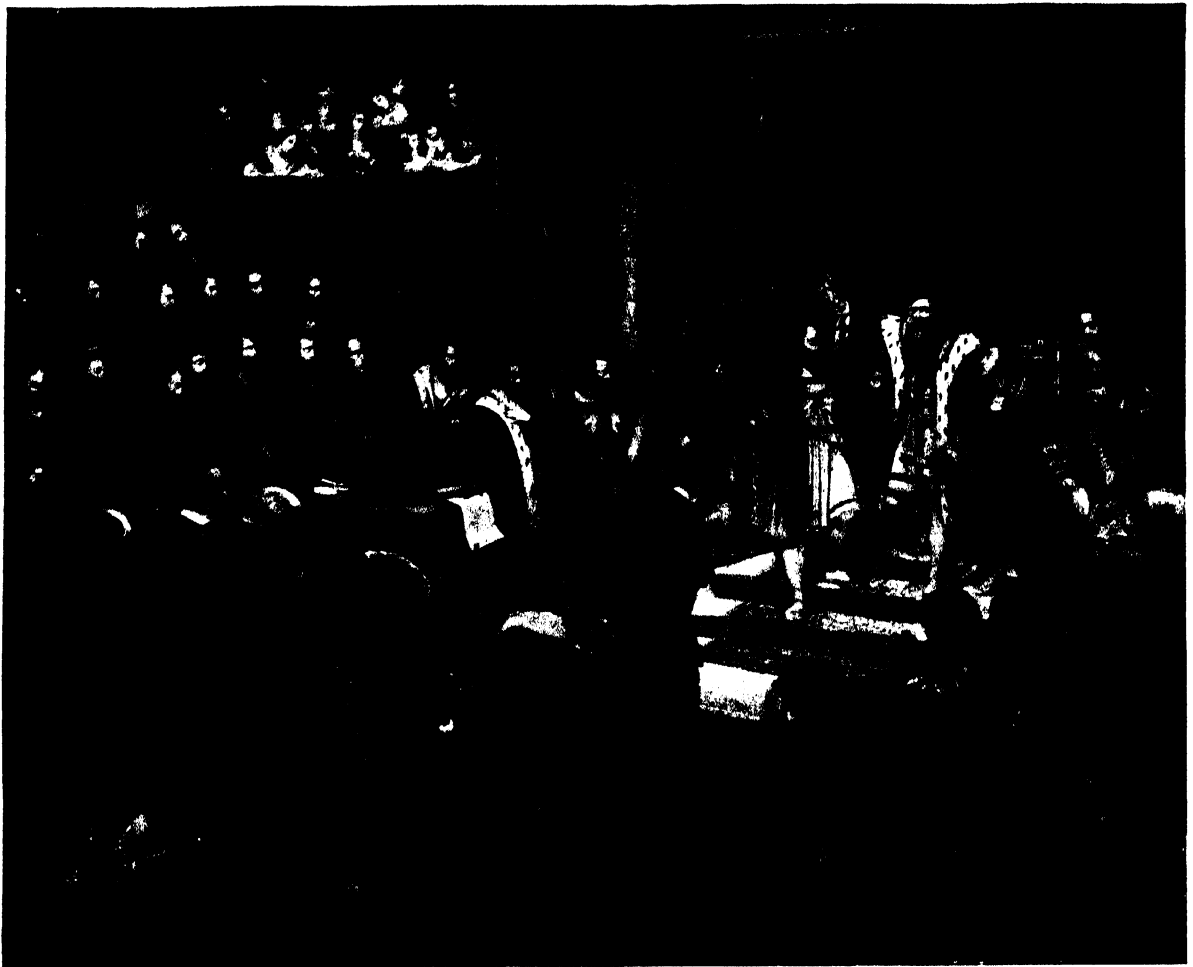


*From the painting*

#### DEATH OF STEN STURE AT LAKE MÄLAR, 1520.

Sten Sture the Younger (1492-1520) was the son of Svante Sture, and on his father's death was elected regent of Sweden. His success provoked the bitter enmity of his rival Erik Trolle, whose adherents declared war on the regent. Trolle invoked the aid of Christian II, of Denmark, who invaded Sweden and met Sture's army near Bürgerund. Sture's troops were routed, he himself was mortally wounded by a bullet, and while endeavouring to reach Stockholm on his sledge expired while crossing the frozen Lake Mälaren.

[By C. G. Hellquist.]



GUSTAVUS VASA PROCLAIMED KING AT STREGNAS, 1523.

Under the Union of Kalmar Norway, Sweden and Denmark were all united under one king. The attempts of Denmark to impose her will upon the weaker kingdoms produced a series of revolts, and in 1523 the tyranny of the Danes under Christian II. had become so intolerable that the Swedes threw off the foreign yoke and elected Gustavus Vasa as their king at Stregnäsa.

monarchy meant the abiding establishment of aristocracy, with all its lawlessness and extravagance. When the king came of age he found the treasury absolutely empty.

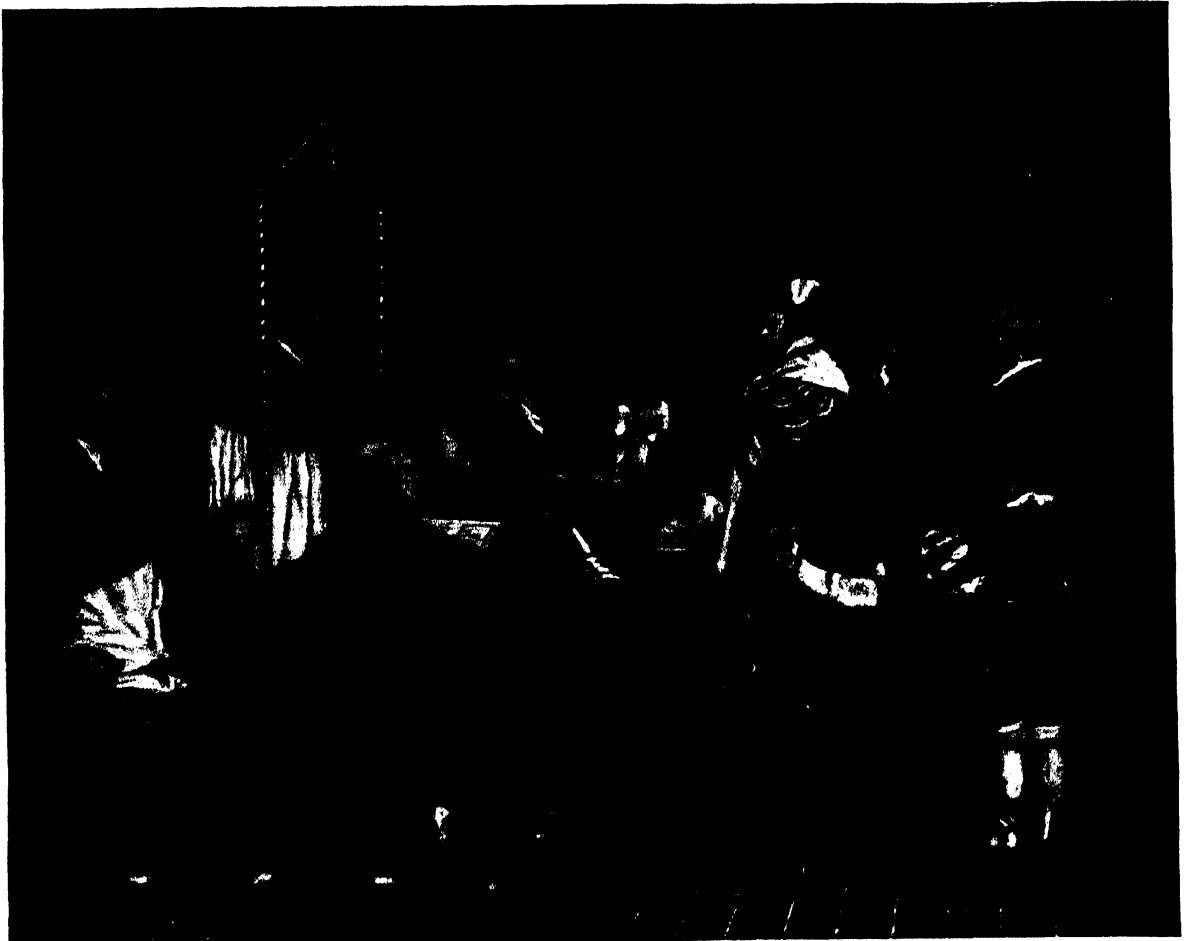
Between the years 1332 and 1363 Magnus, son of Erik, ruled Sweden—at least in name. But he was compelled to endure manifold vicissitudes of fortune. At one time lord not only of Norway, but also of Scania, at another he had to dispute even Sweden with his own sons. He strove to restore his waning prestige by leading a great crusade against the Russians, and forcing all whom he could lay hold of to cut off their beards and receive baptism. But he failed to conquer Ingria, and actually incurred excommunication for failing to repay to the Pope the money borrowed for the expedition. In 1350 the Black Death desolated the land, and famine followed. The great nobles formed a constant source of danger, and finally compelled Magnus to abdicate in favour of an oppressive German, Albert of Mecklenburg.

The reign had none the less witnessed great progress within the realms of law and government. The relics of slavery were done away. The whole of Sweden became subject to the same legal code and judicial system. The Crown was formally declared elective, and in the election no district might claim pre-eminence. The king thus elected must swear to rule with the advice of his council, and to refrain from making laws or levying taxes without the people's consent. Further, after the election and the oath, he must make a progress through the land and receive his crown at the hands of the archbishop. To promote the efficiency of the national defence, yearly wapenshaws were to be held, and an aspiring

peasant could ennoble himself by appearing at one of these duly equipped as a horse-soldier. The burghers in the several towns received an organization under the burgomaster, the king's bailiff and a council, and it is significant that half of the members of the council were to be Germans.

The reign of Magnus is also remarkable for the rise of the greatest woman in Swedish history—Saint Bridget (1303–73). The daughter of one pious noble, married at thirteen to another, the mother of eight children, she spent her life in a ceaseless struggle to attain perfect holiness, and to regenerate the world. Her pilgrimages to Trondhjem, Compostella and Jerusalem attest her indomitable perseverance, and wherever she went she rebuked those men and women, from the Pope downwards, whom she found inert or sinful. From the year of her widowhood, 1344, she devoted herself wholly to religion. Charitable without limit, so ascetic as to cherish an open wound which she tormented for her soul's health, she conversed in trances with Christ and the Virgin, and received from them revelations for mankind. These revelations sometimes took the form of fantastic medieval sermons, but sometimes treated of political questions, such as the respective claims of Denmark and Sweden to Scania. Christ is represented as denouncing a Pope as "a slayer of souls worse than Lucifer, more unjust than Pilate, more pitiless than Judas, more inhuman than the Jews. Thy throne shall sink down like a heavy stone." Rome, none the less, did not deny her a place among the saints.

For some thirty years the aim of this single-minded lady was to found a new hearth of sanctity in her



*From the painting]*

#### GUSTAVUS DENOUNCING THE BISHOP SUNNANVADER.

*[By C. G. Hellquist.*

Gustavus I. determined to undermine the immense power possessed by the Catholic ecclesiastics in Sweden. He secretly encouraged the preaching of Lutheran doctrines and endeavoured to obtain the surrender of the fortresses held by the bishops, with all the wealth they contained. At the Diet of Vesterås all the king's demands were conceded and ratified by a statute known as the Recess of Vesterås, June 21st, 1527.

native land. As a widow, she dwelt chiefly in Rome, but her heart was in Vadstena, where the present convent of her new Order was finally established. The Order provided for both monks and nuns, who lived in separate buildings, but shared a common church. Within Scandinavia nobles and burghers streamed to Vadstena with gifts and recruits. There the spiritual and intellectual life of the three kingdoms found a common inspiration. In the wider world, daughter foundations sprang up in Poland, Italy, England, and many other lands.

After the downfall of King Magnus the people of Sweden rose against German rule, but the nobles sustained Albert of Mecklenburg (1363-89). Their price was the royal capitulation of 1371, which made



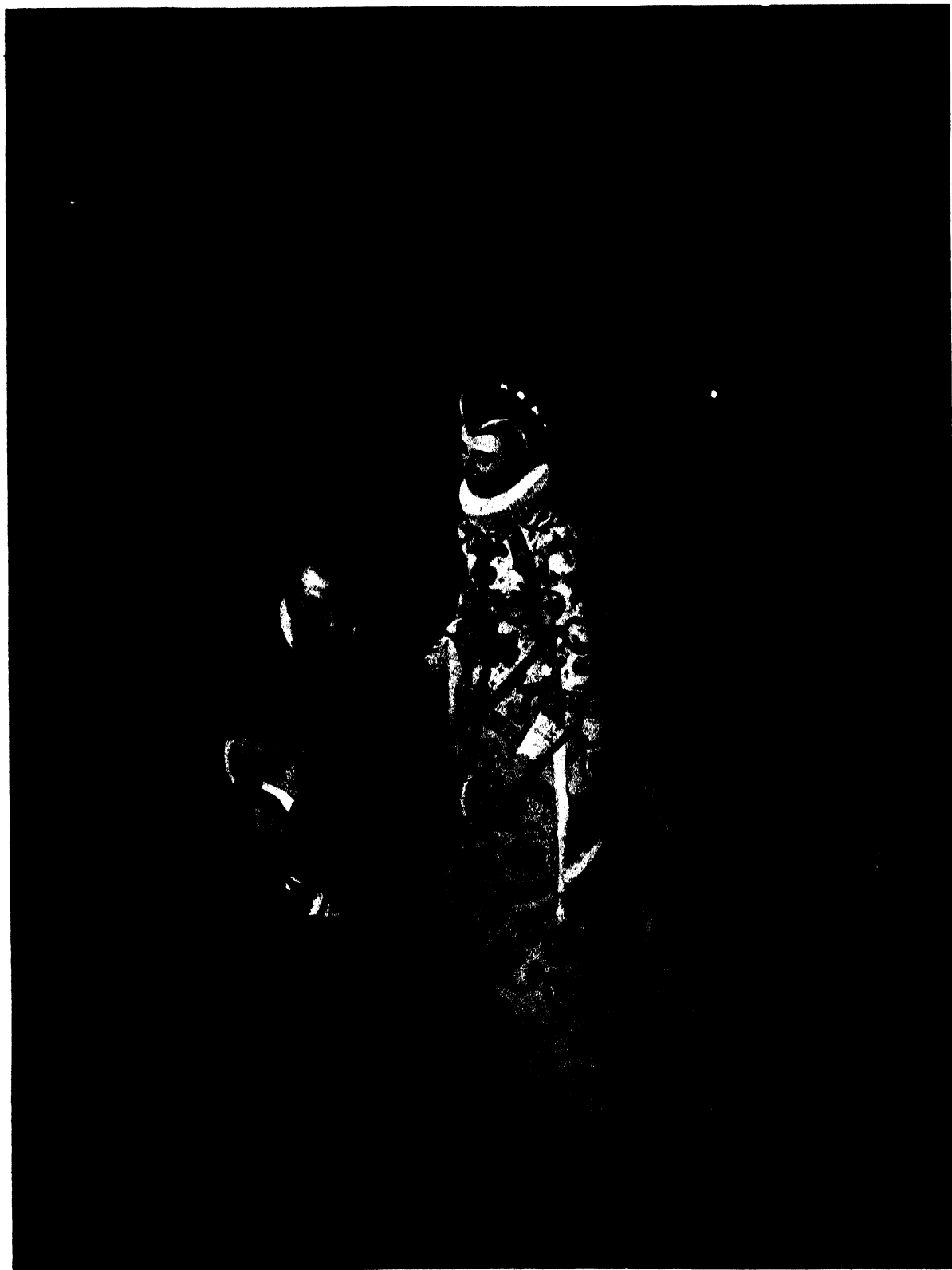
*From the painting]*

*[By G. Saloman.*

#### GUSTAVUS REPROVING DRUNKEN SUBJECTS.

Gustavus I. of Sweden was a noble and dignified king, and a stern, serious and frugal man. Clean-living in the extreme, he absolutely vetoed any form of excess; gluttony and drunkenness were abhorrent to him. He is depicted reprovng some of his subjects who have been drinking too freely.

the aristocratic council the chief power in the realm. The nobles now fortified their castles unchecked, and the mightiest of them, Bo Jonsson, whose apt emblem was a griffin, controlled two-thirds of Sweden and the whole of Finland. After his death in 1386 King Albert attempted to regain the control of his realm. The nobles, however, appealed to Margaret, the regent of Denmark and Norway, who in 1389 defeated with their help the king and his German forces near Falköping. Albert became a prisoner, but the Germans by no means gave up the struggle. In Stockholm they fell upon their Swedish colleagues in the town council, and racked them before burning them alive. German pirates, the so-called "victual brothers," harried the coasts for several years. Finally Margaret, the last of the Folkunger dynasty, gained control of Sweden, restored order, and (as has been described in the history of Norway) established the short-lived pan-Scandinavian Union of Kalmar.



*From the painting]*

*; [By E. Perana.*

#### KARIN MANSDATTER VISITS ERIK XIV. IN PRISON.

Erik XIV. came to the Swedish throne in 1561, and in 1568 married the daughter of a common soldier, Karin Mansdatter, who had been his mistress for three years. In the same year the king became so deranged mentally that he was deposed and imprisoned. Three rebellions with the object of reinstating the king were suppressed, and his prison was constantly being changed. Karin Mansdatter is depicted visiting her husband in his prison cell.



*From the painting]*

*(By O. Cederström.)*

#### MURDER OF NILS STURE BY ERIK XIV.

Erik was obsessed by the suspicion of his nobles' disloyalty, which led him to perpetrate acts of abominable cruelty towards them, especially on members of the Sture family. In 1566 Count Nils Sture was condemned to death before a tribunal on an absurdly frivolous charge. The death sentence was commuted to life-long imprisonment, and he was sent to the fortress of Orbyhus, where Erik murdered him with his own hand.

Margaret attempted to solve the problem which long baffled Sweden—the establishment of a strong monarchy. Although unable to make the Crown hereditary, she weakened the power of the Council, and in 1396 compelled the nobles to destroy their recent fortifications and to renounce the privileges that they had seized during the last generation. As these privileges comprised immunity from taxation, the royal revenue grew greater.

So soon as her strong personality was removed, however, the evils of absentee monarchy became plainly visible in Sweden. Her successor, Erik, who ruled alone from 1412 until 1439, entrusted the government to agents, such as that Jösse Eriksson who gained an evil fame by harnessing the peasants to the plough. At last, failing to gain redress from king or council, the hardy dalesmen of the North rose in arms, with Engelbrekt, a mine-owner, as their leader. His career was brief (1434-36), but triumphant. Under him the commoners of Sweden vindicated their ancient freedom, drove out the oppressive foreign officials, and secured a place in the national assembly. In 1438 the Swedes formally appointed Karl Knutsson Administrator (*riksförståndare*), and next year deposed the king.

From 1440 to 1513 the crown of Sweden belonged in name to three successive Germans. They were supported by the Unionists, who included powerful families, such as the Oxenstierna and the Vasa. The Nationalists, on the other hand, led by the great House of Bonde, represented the distaste of the commons for foreign rule. Between 1448 and 1467 Karl Knutsson was thrice proclaimed king, and the

Administrators also appeared as rivals to the German dynasty of Denmark. Karl bequeathed the government to his trusty kinsman, Sten Sture, who was elected Administrator a year later (1471). Sten Sture was soon called upon to defend his power and the liberties of the Swedes against their Danish king. In the desperate battle of Brunkeberg, fought within sight of the walls of Stockholm, in 1471, the Swedish freemen drove the Danish knights from the land.

For a whole generation, until his death in 1503, Sten Sture dominated Swedish history. Although his personal relations with the nobles were as good as their incurable rivalry with the Crown permitted, he based his power in sound Swedish fashion upon frank co-operation with the peasants and burghers. He sought their counsel, and would rather risk his life, it was said, than suffer a peasant to be defrauded of a sheep. One of the first consequences of his victory over the Oldenburg King of Denmark was the repeal of the law that one-half of the town councillors should be Germans. It is appropriate that the period of his rule should be that in which Sweden gained her own University of Upsala (1477) and her own printing-press. Sten Sture, however, was merely an Administrator, not a crowned head.

In 1483 the nobles attained the highest pinnacle of their power by a bargain with the new German king. By the Recess of Kalmar, King Hans undertook to be guided generally by his council, to reside alternate years in Denmark and Sweden, to govern by natives of the country, not setting over them men of low birth, and to recognize the nobles as in many respects sovereign princes. The Kalmar Recess broke up the unity of Swedish feeling, and after 1495, when the Russians under Ivan III. besieged Viborg, Sten Sture was deposed by the council. He appealed to the people, but his peasants were vanquished by the royal forces at Rotebro, and he made submission to his king.

Four years later he regained office. The king had failed to subdue the brave men of Ditmarsh, and Bishop Hemming Gad had roused the Swedes to claim their independence anew. Scarcely was the land cleared of the Danes, however, when Sten Sture died (1503).

For the next eight years Hemming Gad, equally versatile and tireless, was the soul of the Swedish cause. He secured the election of Svante Sture as Administrator (1504-12), and defied the ban of both Pope and Emperor. After Svante's death, his noble son, Sten Sture the Younger, gained office; but in 1513 Christian II., the powerful champion of royal claims, succeeded to his father's throne.

Swedish independence must now abide the issue of a doubtful struggle. Unhappily the Swedes did not possess the strength which



*From the painting*

## GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS THE GREAT.

Gustavus Adolphus came to the Swedish throne in 1611, and restored law and order in the country by conciliating the nobility and reorganizing the government. In 1620, he married the Elector of Brandenburg's daughter. He led the German Protestants to victory during their struggle against the Catholic League in 1630, but in 1632 was killed at the battle of Lützen.

*[By Van Dyck.]*



comes from unanimity. Gustavus Trolle, the Archbishop of Upsala, organized a pro-Danish faction, and held his fortress of Ståke against the Administrator. A Danish fleet attempted to relieve it, but Sten Sture triumphed (1517), and the Diet deposed the Archbishop and destroyed Ståke.

Next year Christian himself attacked Stockholm from the sea. Sten Sture, with the young noble, Gustavus Vasa, as his standard-bearer, relieved the town and opened negotiations with Christian. The king offered himself to come within the walls, but demanded six hostages for his safety. The hostages, Hemming Gad and Gustavus Vasa among them, were sent, and the Danes treacherously sailed away with them to Denmark.

Christian now bent his whole force on the subjugation of Sweden. Early in 1520 he sent a strong



THE BATTLE OF LEIPZIG, 1631.

Tilly had captured Leipzig, and the Catholic League forces under him lay encamped outside, when Gustavus Adolphus, at the head of a Swedish army, reinforced by some raw Saxon levies, advanced towards him. Although the Saxons were routed at the first onset, Gustavus won a decisive victory, due to his superior generalship and the extraordinary valour of the Swedes.

army to march northward between the great lakes. Sten Sture fell in battle, and died in a sledge on the frozen surface of the Mälars. Without his leadership, the brave burghers and peasants were doomed to failure. Before the year was out Christian received the Swedish crown.

After four days of ceremonial and of festivity the king perpetrated the blackest crime in Swedish history. Having assembled the notables of the realm and of the capital, he listened to the indictment by Gustavus Trolle of those who had deposed him. An ecclesiastical tribunal pronounced them guilty of treason, and they were hurried to the scaffold. Two perfectly innocent bishops and eighty other persons suffered death immediately ; others, in the days which followed. Their corpses, with those of Sten Sture and his little child, were burned, and their goods forfeited to the Crown. Sten Sture's widow and other noble ladies were sent as prisoners to Denmark. This " Blood Bath " extended even to Finland, where the aged Hemming Gad was numbered among its victims. Its object was terrorism ;



*From the painting]*

#### A COUNCIL OF WAR DURING THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

*[By J. Boklund.*

The Thirty Years' War lasted from 1618 to 1648 and was a politico-religious struggle involving several European countries. The war was concluded by the Peace of Westphalia. The Protestant forces, commanded by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, opposed the troops of the Catholic League under Tilly. After a series of sanguinary conflicts Gustavus proved the victor, and was hailed as a liberator and deliverer by all Protestant Germany. The scene depicts a council of war between Gustavus and his generals.



*From the painting]*

*[by W. Rauber.*

#### DEATH OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS AT LUTZEN, 1632.

During the battle Gustavus advanced at the head of his cavalry to reinforce one of his generals. The king's impatience carried him forward in advance of his men, from whom he was suddenly separated by a cloud of fog. Meeting a regiment of cuirassiers, Gustavus turned off to the left in retreat and was shot through the back.

its excuse, the defiance of an interdict by the Swedes ; its consequence, the destruction of the union with Denmark.

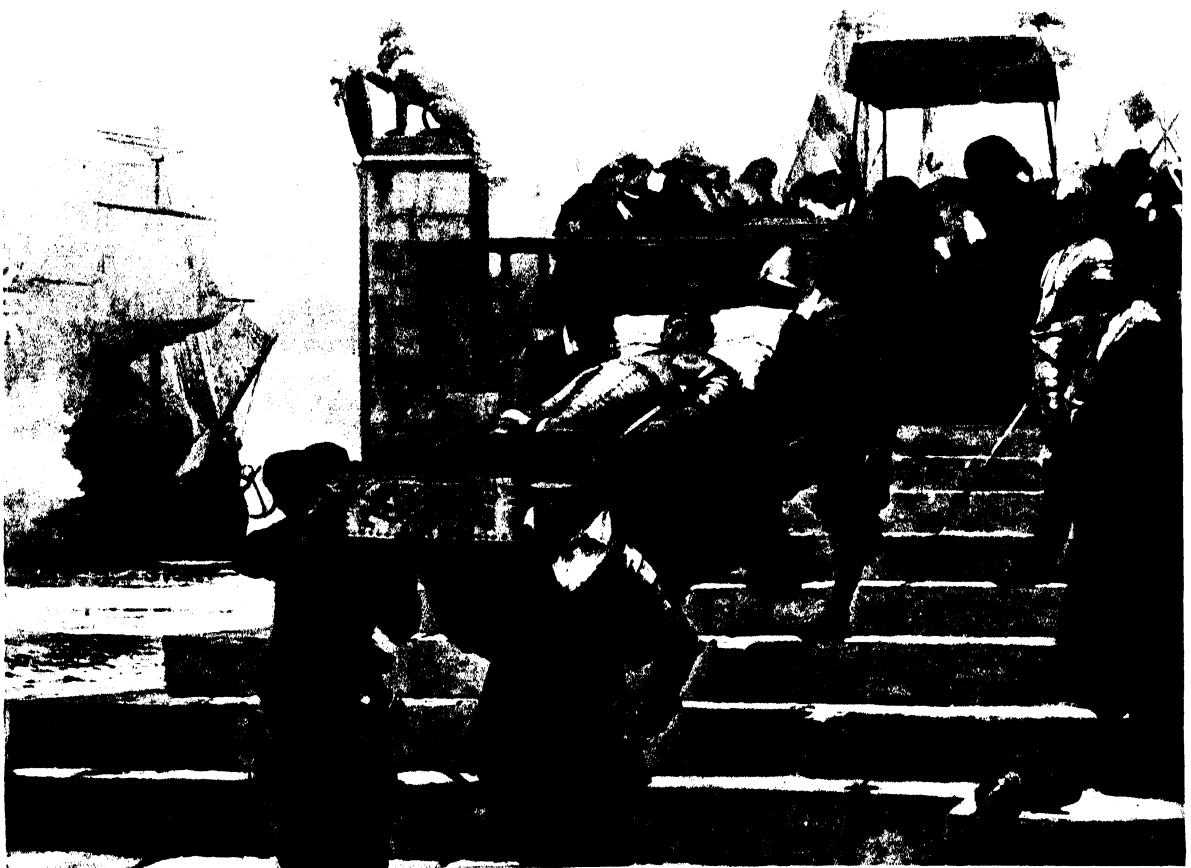
"God's miracle-man, who built up the realm of Sweden from base to roof," now appeared in the person of Gustavus Vasa. "A noble youth, comely, ready-witted and prompt in action," devoted to his former lord, Sten Sture, he had found it impossible to remain a tranquil captive while his countrymen were crushed, and in 1520 he had fled from Denmark in disguise. The Senate of Lübeck sheltered him against a king who viewed their power with disfavour, and he made his way to Sweden. For eight months he wandered from place to place, often in disguise, and always striving, though in vain, to rouse the country against the Danes. Even the Blood Bath of Stockholm, which deprived his father of life and his mother and sisters of liberty, did not rouse the peasants, since they regarded Christian as the foe of the nobles alone. In December, however, the news spread through the land that the people were to be disarmed and taxed, and that a gallows was to be set up at every manor-house. The dalesmen, therefore, hastily sent men on skis to stop Gustavus's flight to Norway and elected him ruler of Sweden.

The War of Liberation thus began as a rising of two hundred peasants against an absent king. It soon appeared, however, that Christian's tyranny and crime had both outraged the national feeling and removed possible Swedish rivals to Gustavus. His army rose to fifteen thousand, and near Vesterås his pikemen repulsed the Danish cavalry and captured all their guns. After narrowly escaping disaster at the hands of Archbishop Trolle, Gustavus successively defeated him, secured the help of Lübeck, laid siege to Stockholm, and was elected Administrator. The fall of Christian in Denmark prepared the way for the unanimous choice of Gustavus as King of Sweden (June 6th, 1523), and the fall of Stockholm, after an interminable siege, swiftly followed. The capture of other fortresses and the recovery of Finland made Sweden once more a full and independent realm.

Within four years she had become also Protestant. The chief cause of her rapid conversion lay in the political needs of the king. Gustavus, a righteous man in private life, but a monarch who held that "necessity breaks law, at times the law of God," found that only by despoiling the Church could he garnish the Swedish crown. The State was impoverished, even bankrupt, the dalesmen mutinous, and the throne insecure. The Church, on the other hand, was rich and ignorant, and its leaders favoured the old connection with Denmark. In such a situation, the Lutheran teaching, which made the king a pope

and the monasteries the property of the commonwealth, proved irresistible, quite apart from the attractiveness of simpler worship and purer faith. Gustavus first patronized the Swedish students from Wittenberg, then taxed the Church and deposed two prelates ; then published the New Testament in Swedish, and finally called to counsel the Diet in Vesterås (1527). There Bishop Brask, an able and enlightened champion of the existing order, resisted the royal proposals, and it became clear that the Diet was with him. " Then have I no will," burst out Gustavus, " longer to be your king. Now I cannot wonder that the common people are mad and disobedient when they have such ringleaders. If they get not rain and sunshine, they blame me ; if death, famine and plague come, I must bear the blame. . . . Repay me what I have spent of my own fortune upon the realm, and I will never return to my ungrateful country." Weeping, he quitted the assembly, to be brought back four days later completely victorious. The Church had surrendered to the other three estates. The king and nobles divided the Church lands between them, the monasteries were dissolved, and the brothers Petri organized the Lutheran national Church. " Rather die a hundred times than abandon the Gospel," was the last counsel of the dying Gustavus. Without the Reformation, as he well knew, national independence and strong monarchy could not be secure.

For nearly a quarter of a century after adopting the Reformation, Gustavus laboured incessantly to become the powerful ruler of a powerful kingdom. Pliant, versatile and merry, yet passionate and inflexible, he smote down opposition while building up institutions which were really new. In 1537, the commercial tyranny of Lübeck was shaken off. In 1543, the revolt of Nils Dacke, the last and most



*From the painting]*

*[By C. G. Hellquist.*

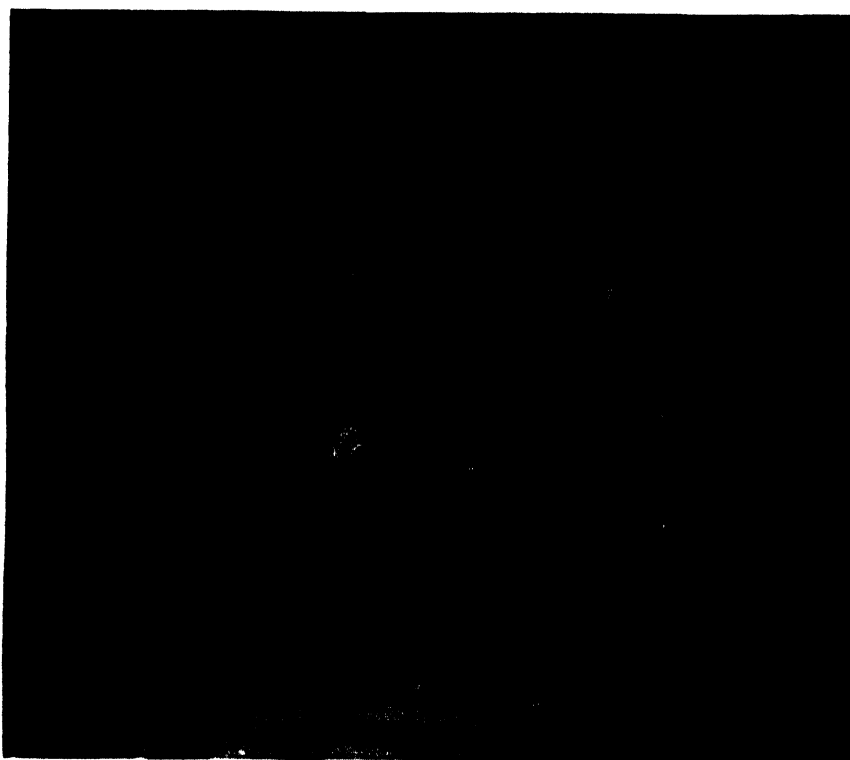
## CONVEYING THE BODY OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS TO THE SHIP AT WOLGAST.

The Swedes purchased their victory at Lützen at the heavy price of the death of their dearly-loved ruler, Gustavus Adolphus. The king's body, which was found under a heap of dead, naked, covered with wounds and blood, was conveyed to Naumburg ; from there it was taken to Wolgast, put on board ship and transported to Stockholm.

dangerous of many rebellions against Gustavus, came to an end with the death of its leader. Next year the Diet made the Crown hereditary, with primogeniture among the male offspring of the king. Beginning in poverty, Gustavus died enormously rich. He had enriched not merely the Crown, but the kingdom, by keeping peace at home and abroad and by developing commerce. He had reorganized the army, created a fleet of twenty-five great warships and beaten off a Russian assault on Finland (1557). The enemy that he had not conquered was ignorance. Before the Reformation Bishop Brask had issued translations of the classics, to give the young nobles an alternative to the ale-house. The priests, one at least of whom supposed that the Old Testament had been lost in the Flood, gained no illumination by being turned into Protestants. Gustavus found himself obliged to make foreigners his secretaries, since no Swede possessed the necessary knowledge. By giving royal dukedoms to his younger sons the king jeopardized his lifework. Yet in 1560, when he took a pathetic farewell of his subjects on the

eve of death, he could rightly thank God for having chosen him to deliver Sweden from thralldom. In creative energy and success, he may rank with Louis XI., with the Great Elector, and even with Peter the Great.

During the century which followed his death, Sweden was ruled by five of his descendants, each of whom possessed striking ambition, fine presence and versatile ability. Under his son, Erik XIV. (1560-68), who wooed both Elizabeth of England and Mary Queen of Scots, and married a corporal's daughter, Sweden began to assert her claims to predominance in the Baltic Sea. The progress of Christianity and the Reformation had deprived the Knights of the Sword of their reason for



*From the painting]*

#### POLISH SOLDIER BROUGHT BEFORE CHARLES X.

*[By J. Boklund.*

In the summer of 1655 Charles X. of Sweden invaded Poland simply to gratify his thirst for military glory. Before the year was out he defeated the Poles in a great battle near Warsaw, which capital he occupied. A Polish soldier is depicted being interrogated by the king.

existence, and their possessions, the so-called Baltic Provinces, thus became good prize. Erik secured Esthonia in 1561, but in 1563 became involved in war with Denmark, Poland, Saxony and Lübeck. This war lasted seven years, and one hundred and sixty years passed before the disputed question received its final solution. While Erik displayed his incapacity on land, the early campaigns saw the Swedes masters of the sea and made the names of Jacob Bagge and Klas Kristersson Horn for ever famous in their annals. War with Denmark, the ancient tyrant, moreover, always roused Swedish ardour. In 1566, despite grave defeats and an isolation so severe that wine could not be procured for the Eucharist, the Diet protested that they would sacrifice their lives and all that they possessed rather than submit to an adverse peace. Erik, however, brilliant but unstable, was convulsing the realm by a capricious tyranny which revealed a strain of madness. He had crushed his half-brothers and all other possible rivals, only to establish a reign of terror. His suspicions fell on the nobles and particularly upon the great house of Sture, among whom he believed that he discerned the fairhaired man destined by the stars to overthrow



[From the painting]

#### THE LYING-IN-STATE OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, 1633.

[By F. Dietz.]

The great champion of the Protestants of continental Europe was buried at Stockholm in the Knights' Church, which since his burial there has been the funeral-place of Swedish kings and of Sweden's most famous men. In the incident depicted Marie Eleonora of Brandenburg is seen on the point of falling in a paroxysm of grief by the body of her dead husband, whilst their little daughter Christina turns shyly from the throng of courtiers, statesmen and soldiers soon to welcome her as Queen of Sweden.

him. In 1567 he treacherously stabbed Nils Sture and bade his soldiers slay two of his kinsmen, two other lads and his own tutor. Remorse turned him for a time into a fugitive and a madman, but the Diet condoned the crime. Next year, however, his half-brothers John and Charles flung him from the throne, and from 1569 to 1592 John ruled Sweden as her elected king.

John III., though far from commonplace, was the feeblest of the Vasa line. His position, too, was feeble, for he had been compelled to make concessions to those who had placed him in power—his more virile brother Charles and the great nobles. His reign was in no small degree the reign of Charles, a stern Calvinist and upholder of the policy of their father, Gustavus.



*From the painting]*

THE FIRE AT THE ROYAL CASTLE, STOCKHOLM, 1697.

*[By J. F. Hockert.]*

In the spring of 1697 a serious calamity overtook the Swedish royal household by the burning of the royal castle known as the "Tre Kronor." During the fire the body of Charles XI., who had but recently died, was with difficulty rescued from the flames. Charles XII. is seen supporting a lady of his court in her flight from the burning building.

In 1570 the desolating Seven Years' War came to an end with the Peace of Stettin. It left Denmark and Sweden exhausted, but filled with mutual loathing. The Swedish ransom of Gothenburg, some thirty-three thousand pounds, could not be paid without imposing on the peasants a tax of one-tenth of their movable property.

Even before the Peace of Stettin was signed, the Swedish lands beyond the Baltic were invaded by the savage hordes of Ivan the Terrible. For thirteen years the struggle was maintained, until the Swedes and Poles in concert had excluded the Tsar from the Baltic and compelled him to the truce of 1583.

Meanwhile Sweden was convulsed anew by the king's attitude towards religion. Like James I. of England, John prided himself on his theological learning. Influenced by his Polish queen, by the great European tide of Catholic reaction, and by hopes of a great political career, he strove to transform

the Swedish Church into a body which Rome could view with approbation. He devised a liturgy and imposed the Mass upon every parish. But Charles refused to suffer it in his Duchy of Sudemania, and it became clear that, after the resolution of the Council of Trent, Rome could accept nothing short of complete submission.

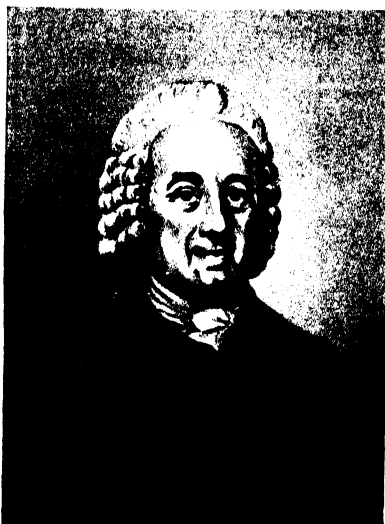
In 1586, however, John procured for his son Sigismund the Polish crown, which none save a Romanist could wear. It proved a heavy burden and jeopardized the future of Sigismund as his father's heir. From 1592 to 1599, it is true, Sigismund nominally favoured, was sternly rejected. The Upsala Meeting saved the Reformation in Sweden, and, through



CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

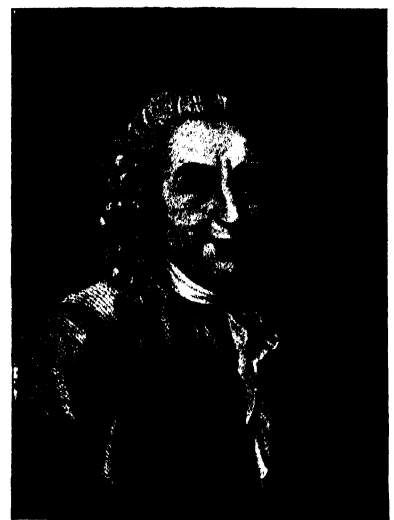
Charles XII. (1682-1718) came to the throne of Sweden in 1697. Poland, Russia and Denmark made an unsuccessful attempt to seize Sweden, but the king defeated each country in turn. Charles was killed by a musket-ball during the siege of Frederikshald.

ruled in Sweden. But his known propagandism caused the Swedes to rally round Duke Charles and the Protestant cause. In 1593, before the "King of the Jesuits" set foot in the land, the Council and many priests met at Upsala to settle their religion. They resolved unanimously that the Scriptures are man's sole guide, and that the three creeds and the Augsburg Confession express the truth. "Now is Sweden become one man," cried the president in triumph, "and we have all one Lord and God." John's innovations were swept away, and Calvinism, which Duke Charles



Emanuel Swedenborg (1688-1772) served Charles XII. of Sweden as a military engineer and wrote several notable works on physics and theology.

Sweden, in Europe. Its immediate effect was to make the Catholic King of Poland impossible in Sweden. Sigismund purchased his coronation by an oath to respect the Upsala resolution. That oath, however, he could not in conscience keep. In the age when Europe was cleft by wars of religion, moreover, the Swedes required a king who would do more than merely tolerate their Church. The Council, hoping to regain their ancient power, supported the absentee king. But the people joined Duke Charles, as they had joined his father, in flinging off a foreign yoke. They conquered in the

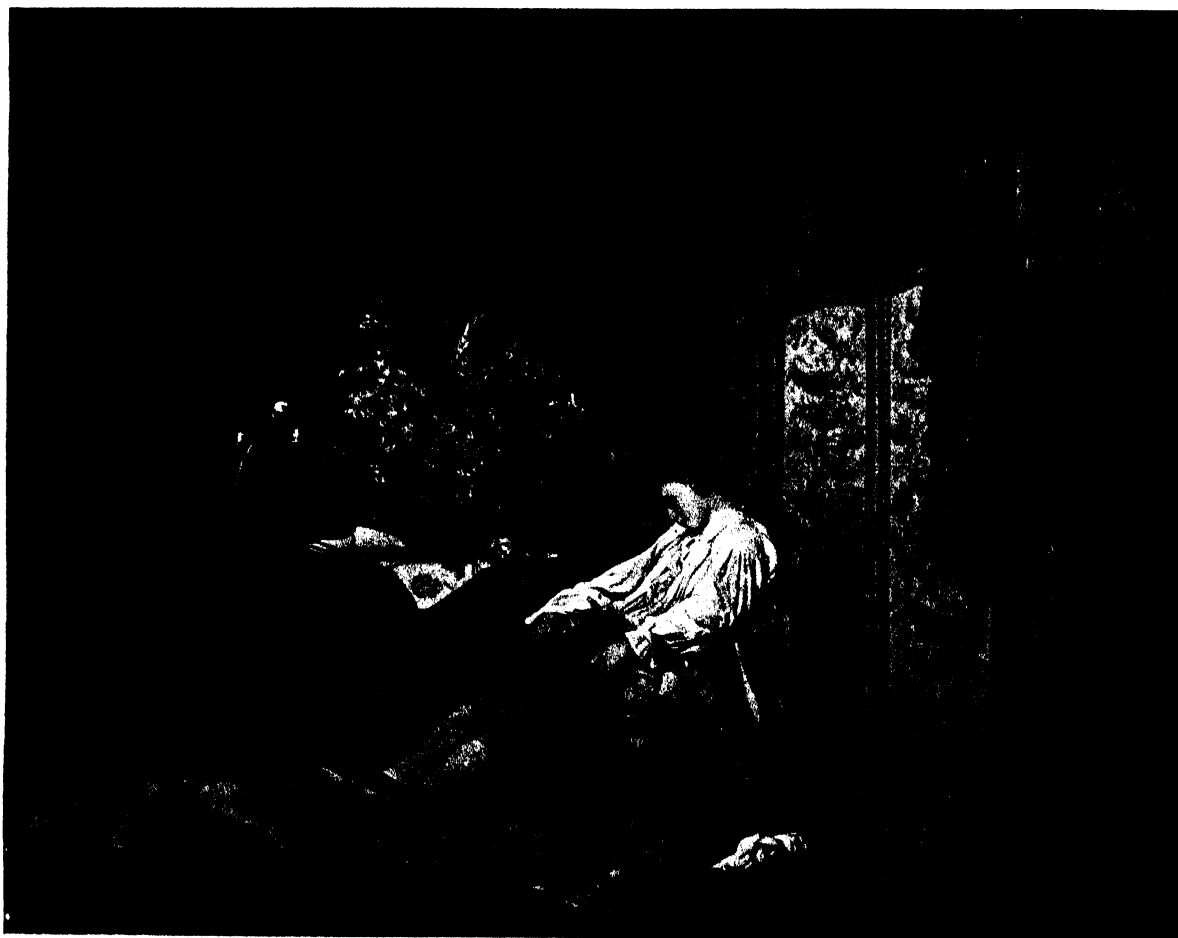


Carl Linnaeus (1707-1778), the founder of modern botany, made several scientific explorations productive of works on the flora and fauna of Sweden.



field, and in 1599 Sigismund was formally deposed. For sixty years he and his heirs continued to claim the crown.

As king, for he accepted by slow stages the usurped sovereignty, Charles IX. showed himself a harsher Gustavus. In husbanding the national estate, in frankly taking the people into their counsel, in swiftly overwhelming opponents, and in pressing to the utmost every royal claim, the founder and the refounder of the dynasty were alike. Charles began by executing many great nobles as traitors. Having thus secured his power, he laboured incessantly in administration and fought steadfastly against the Poles. Death found him, in 1611, endeavouring to repulse Christian IV. of Denmark.



*From the painting]*

#### LINNAEUS AT HOME.

*[By L. P. Ronx.]*

Linnaeus was born at Råshult in Southern Sweden and studied at the Upsala University, where, in 1742, he was appointed professor of botany. He practised as a physician at Stockholm and his family was ennobled in 1757. The scene depicts Linnaeus asleep in a chair, having returned home evidently tired out at the finish of one of his botanical excursions.

Charles IX. was succeeded by his son, Gustavus Adolphus, a youth of seventeen, whom nature and art had joined in equipping for a throne. Kingly in form and feature, in glance and memory, in bearing and in genius, it can be said of him that "in all history there is probably no man who leaves such an impression of energy under restraint, the truest mark of greatness in human character" (S. R. Gardiner). He had already studied history, theology and music, as well as statecraft and war. He spoke five languages besides his own, and was acquainted with five more. What made him irresistible to his people was the fact that he added to the frankness and self-sacrifice of his father and grandfather a geniality which appealed to every class and an idealism which roused all that was best in the nation. "In Gustavus alone met the knight-errant, the statesman and the king." And in his great Chancellor, Axel Oxenstierna, he possessed an able, cool, tenacious minister, the perfect complement to his enthusiastic self.



*From the painting*

[By S. Bourdon.  
Charles X. (1622-1660) succeeded to the Swedish throne in 1654. He invaded Poland in 1655, forcing the Elector to acknowledge his lordship over Prussia, and while waging war on the Danes, in 1658-60, died suddenly at Gothenburg.



*From the painting*

[By S. Bourdon.  
Christina of Sweden (1626-1689) came to the throne in 1644. She ruled well for some years, but abdicated in 1654 in favour of her cousin, Charles X. On his death she attempted reinstatement on the throne but failed.



Charles XII. of Sweden spent most of his reign achieving military glory. He was brave, determined and hardy, and an able, sagacious counsellor. But his ambition was fatal to Sweden, which, after his death, exhausted by war, ceased to be a great power.

implied the downfall of himself and of his realm. In 1624 he proposed to James I. that he should lead an army into Germany. Being underbid, however, by Christian IV., who failed to grasp the difficulties before him, he quietly continued his work of invigorating and educating the Swedish people. He inspired not only institutions, but also men. The great warriors Horn, Banér and Torstensson had their peaceful counterparts within his circle.

The building up of Sweden went on to the intermittent accompaniment of Polish war. The successful siege of Riga in 1621, and the victory of Wallhof in 1626, bore witness that Livonia had been conquered and that a new military power had arisen. Succeeding campaigns carried the Swedish arms far along the south coast of the Baltic, and at Stralsund swords were crossed with the soldiers of the Emperor. In 1629, however, the truce of Altmärk was arranged. Richelieu thus helped to set Gustavus free to fight in Germany, where the Protestant cause and the liberty of Europe must be saved promptly, if at all.

In three campaigns (1630-32) Gustavus made it impossible for northern Germany to be Romanized against its will, or for the Catholic powers to

Between 1611, when he became monarch of a weak and remote kingdom, and 1630, when he appeared as arbiter of Europe, Gustavus and his Swedes underwent a severe training for their great part. By hard fighting and heavy payments they obtained peace with Denmark in 1613, only to plunge deeper into strife with the Russians. For a moment it seemed as though a Swedish prince might become Tsar. In 1613, however, the first Romanov was elected, and in 1617 he was compelled to cede Eastern Carrelia and Ingria as the price of the Peace of Stolbova. This treaty, concluded under the mediation of James I., entitled Gustavus to congratulate the Diet on the fact that without their leave the Russians could not launch a boat upon the Baltic.

After Stolbova, Gustavus enjoyed four years of almost unbroken peace. The struggle with Sigismund was, however, only postponed by successive truces, and the progress of the Thirty Years' War (1618-48) touched Sweden nearly. Gustavus knew that the triumph of Romanism

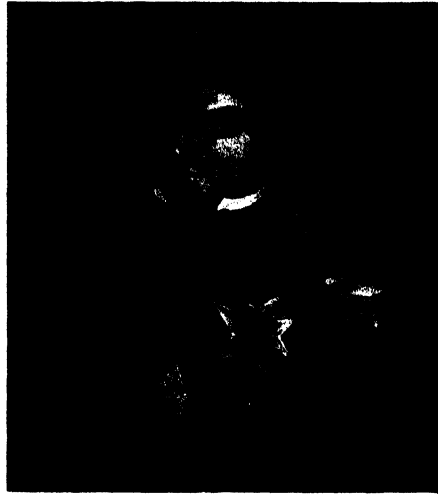


Gustavus III. (1746-1792) came to the Swedish throne in 1771. He broke the nobles' power and encouraged agriculture and commerce. While endeavouring to employ the forces of Sweden on behalf of Louis XVI. against the Revolution he was assassinated at Stockholm.

subdue Sweden. The narrative of the war belongs rather to the history of Germany than to that of Scandinavia. But Gustavus, by his triumphs and heroic death, had profoundly influenced the future of his own country. He had taught her the art of war, had given her prestige in Europe, had consecrated the ideal of Baltic empire, and had made the king in the Diet the centre of her constitution. For eighty-six years after his death others strove to tread in his footsteps. They failed, and the great age of Sweden closed.

had secured in eighteen campaigns.

To this glorious end had Axel Oxenstierna and a band of brilliant generals brought Gustavus's war. In the domain of government, moreover, the great king's work had issued in the Form of Government of 1634, by which an orderly bureaucracy was established. But the ancient simplicity and strenuousness of the nation had suffered: the nobles had purchased privileges which jeopardized the immemorial freedom of the peasants; and for six years Queen



Jean Bernadotte (1764-1844) greatly distinguished himself in the French army under Napoleon I. In 1810 he was elected heir to the throne of Sweden, which he ascended in 1818 as Charles XIV

When Gustavus fell at Lützen, he left an infant daughter, Christina, by the sentimental Brandenburg princess whom for policy's sake he had espoused. Axel Oxenstierna governed, and the German war went on until 1648. Yet a sudden dash into Jutland was made in 1643, and Denmark purchased peace at Brömsebro (1645) by large concessions. Three years later, by the Peace of Westphalia, Sweden gained provinces in Pomerania, together with Bremen and Verden and five million dollars, in addition to the plunder which her legions

Christina, now of age to rule, gracefully hurried the state towards its ruin. At a time when economy was the only wise policy, she lavished dignities and estates upon her favourites, and the exotic brilliance of her learned circle could not atone for bankruptcy. Fortunately for Sweden, her throne seemed to her too lowly, and the national faith too cold. In 1654 she abdicated, and retired to Rome with



From the painting]

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS IV. AND HIS QUEEN.

[By J. Forsslund.

Gustavus IV. (1778-1837) came to the Swedish throne in 1792, and in 1797 married the Grand Duke of Baden's daughter Frederica. In 1808 the king, becoming insane, was deposed, and he was divorced from his consort in 1812. He died at St. Gall, Switzerland.

a handsome revenue and a court. In her the direct line of Vasa came to an end. To Christina succeeded her cousin and rejected suitor, Charles X. (1654-60), a warrior who has been styled, not inaptly, the Swedish Napoleon. His energy was adequate to any task in war or peace. Having begun by reclaiming from the nobles some of the estates of which they had despoiled the Crown, he turned in 1655 to win profit from a war with Poland. In the daring of his conception, in his persuasiveness with the Diet, and in his handling of the army, he was to prove himself the equal of any Swedish king. The first campaign saw Warsaw and Cracow taken, Charles obeyed as king in Poland, and the Great Elector of Brandenburg frightened into acquiescence. The Poles, however, soon rose against a Lutheran foreigner, and all Charles's amazing marches and victories could not hold them down. The Czar and the Emperor joined the number of his enemies, the Hohenzollern, having received the payment for his alliance, awaited only the moment to betray, and in June, 1657, Frederick III. determined that the time for Denmark to strike had come.

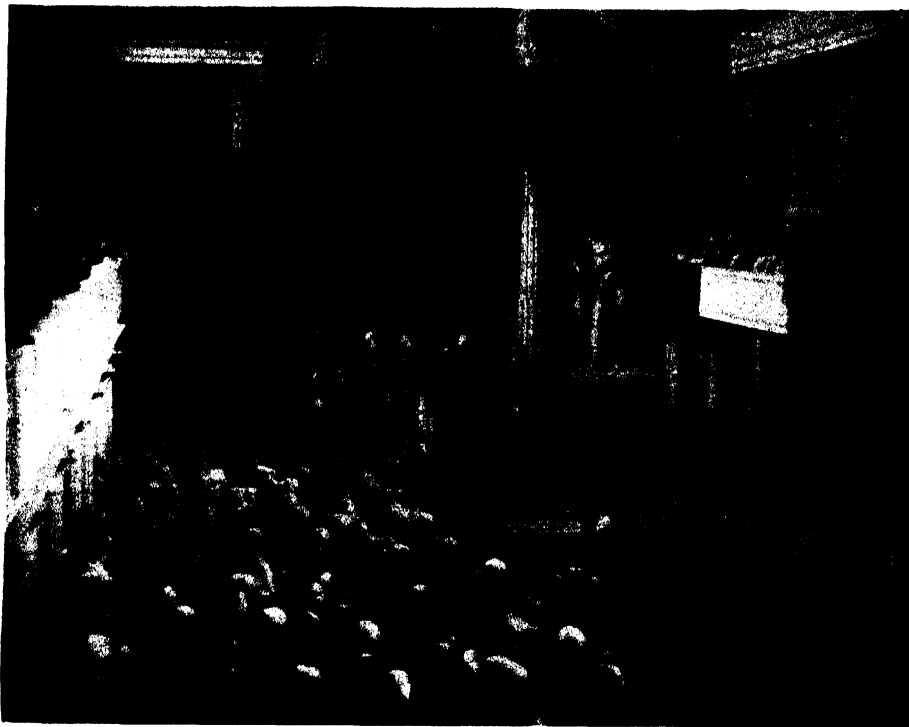


Photo by]

[Underwood &amp; Underwood.

The Storting formally deposing King Oscar from the throne of Norway and declaring the severance of that kingdom from Sweden on the 7th of June, 1905.

Within nine months, by perhaps the most amazing campaign in the whole history of Scandinavia Charles had raised his country to her highest point of empire. The climax was reached when the Swedes marched from island to island upon the ice, and dictated peace at Roskilde, the Danish Westminster. By this peace, Norway was dismembered and the confines of Sweden extended to the Sound. Distrusting the Danes, however, he again, in July, 1658, unsheathed the sword. But the Sea

Powers, Dutch and English, were determined that the shores of the Sound should not again be grasped by a single hand. Their intervention foiled even Charles X. He struggled bravely against a world in arms, but his death, early in 1660, impelled Sweden towards a general peace. Part of the price paid was the return of Trondhjem to Norway.

Charles X., like the great Gustavus, left a foolish widow and an infant heir. While Charles XI. (1660-1697) was growing up to manhood, the nobles gained great power, and used it ill. The Swedes became the mercenaries of Louis XIV. Their defeat in 1675 by the Great Elector at Fehrbellin shattered their reputation and brought upon them other German princes and the Danes. Scania, to its delight, reverted to Denmark, and the throne of Charles tottered.

In this crisis, the shy, untutored monarch placed himself at the head of what was best in his forces. His obstinate valour broke the Danish invasion, and in 1679, thanks to Louis XIV., Sweden emerged from the ordeal without loss of empire. After bloody victories in the field, the king turned to yet more crushing triumphs over his nobles. Between 1680 and 1682 his resumption of alienated crown-lands



*From the painting]*

#### KING OSCAR II.

*[By E. Perseus.*

Oscar II. (1829-1907), King of Norway and Sweden, was educated at Upsala University. He married, in 1857, the Princess Sophia Wilhelmina, youngest daughter of Duke William of Nassau, and succeeded his brother, Charles XV., in 1872. The king realized the difficulties of maintaining the union between Norway and Sweden, and owing to his tact a peaceful solution of the crisis of 1905 was attained. His acute intelligence gave considerable weight to his opinions in matters of international importance.

shattered their finances and their power, and made Sweden practically a benevolent despotism. For the last eighteen years of his life, Charles XI. preserved peace, acted as the untiring steward of the national resources, and built up a strong force by land and sea. Not the least successful of his measures were those for the incorporation of Scania with Sweden. The University of Lund trained Swedish officials; the Lutheran worship was carried on in the Swedish tongue, and the peasants soon grew accustomed to Swedish rule.

The omnipotent authority which Charles XI. had bequeathed was entrusted by the Diet to his son Charles XII. at the age of fifteen. Half Viking, half Crusader, the young autocrat showed during three years of peace self-confidence, diligence and reckless daring, but attempted nothing great. Then in February, 1700, he was confronted by a conspiracy of three kings, Augustus of Poland, Peter of Russia, and Frederick IV. of Denmark, urged on by Patkul, the spokesman of those Livonian nobles whom Charles XI. had wronged. The news of this crime made him a grave man, and he spent the remainder

XIV. But he scorned to be a statesman, and the remainder of his career is a string of amazing adventures which ruined Sweden.

Between 1702 and 1706, his victories compelled the Poles to elect Stanislaus Leczinski as their king; Augustus to abdicate and to give up Patkul, who was broken on the wheel; the Emperor to grant toleration to the Silesian Protestants; and the opponents of France to propitiate him by a visit from Marlborough. Meanwhile Peter was subduing the Baltic Provinces, and actually founded Petrograd on Swedish soil within three

years of his own flight

With the aid of the Sea Powers, Charles first terrified the Danes into submission. Next, in November, 1700, he crushed at Narva Peter's army, five times as numerous as his own and strongly entrenched. Next year the troops of the allies fled before him, and the Poles declared that this was a war not of their Republic, but only of its Saxon king, Augustus. Every statesmanlike consideration showed that Charles should now remain content with having saved the Swedish empire, and fight, if he must fight at all, on the side of the Sea Powers against Louis

from Narva. At last, early in 1708, Charles turned against him, only to close a long story of misfortune with the disaster of Pultava (June 28th, 1709). He then took up his abode among the Turks, while Magnus Stenbock and the peasants bravely repelled the Danes; but the Swedish empire melted. At last, in 1713, the Council plucked up courage to defy the king and summon the Diet. This step effectively recalled Charles to Sweden. He landed in 1715, rejected the excellent terms which his ancient foe, together with Prussia and Hanover, would have conceded, employed a foreigner, Görtz, to tax the exhausted people, and perished on the Norwegian frontier (1718).

By his stern simplicity and mighty feats of war Charles XII. had made himself an eternal hero of the Swedish people. But the immediate consequences of his reign were the downfall of the monarchy, the loss of the empire, and the disappearance of Sweden from the ranks of the Great Powers. Under the nominal rule of his sister, Ulrica Eleonora (1718-20), her husband, Frederick I. (1720-51), and Charles X.'s great-grandson, Adolphus Frederick (1751-71), power was wielded by factions of the lower nobles, who depended for their livelihood upon their official positions. In 1719-21 peace was made with Hanover, Prussia, Denmark and Russia respectively, Sweden retaining only a diminished Finland and



*Photo by]*

*[Underwood & Underwood.*

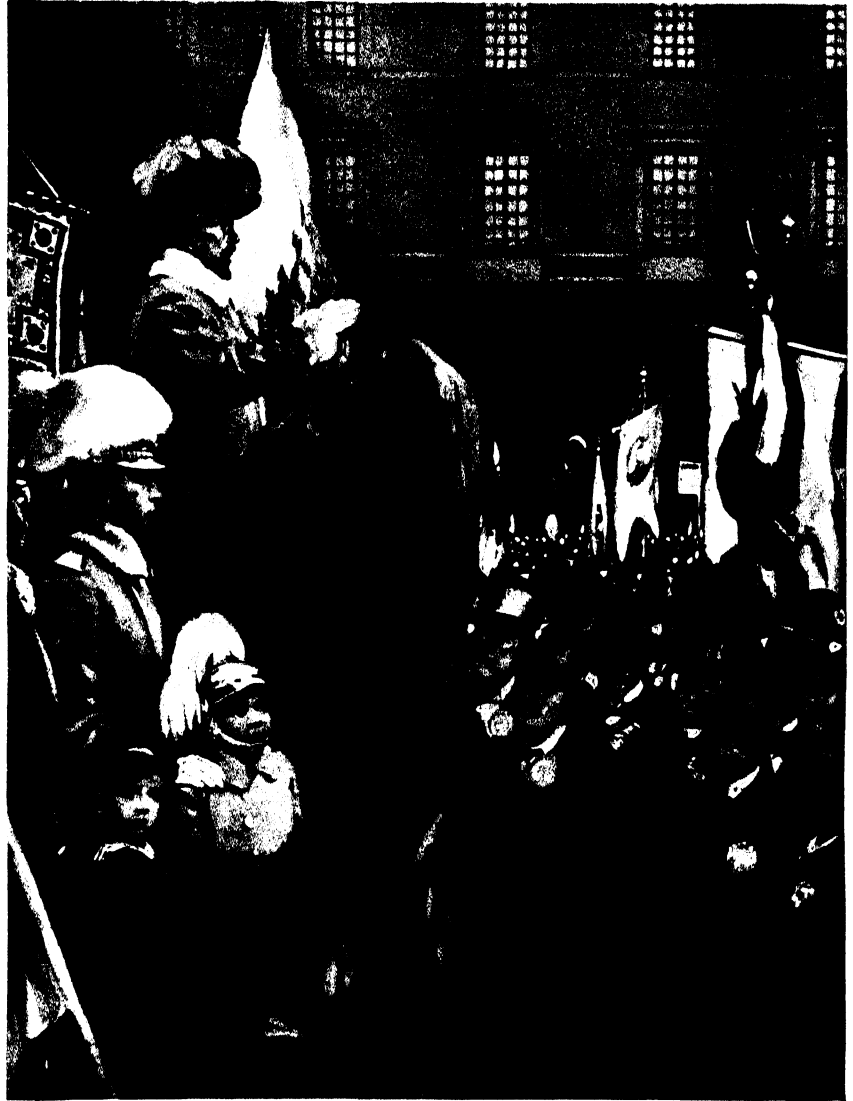
Gustavus V., the present King of Sweden, was born in 1858. In 1881 he married Victoria, daughter of the Grand Duke of Baden, and, when Crown Prince, frequently acted as regent. He succeeded his father in 1907.

Pomerania north of the Peene. In 1720 the four Estates seized the reins of government, and soon the enemies of Sweden came to regard the maintenance of this constitution as guaranteeing her impotence. Until the close of 1738 Arvid Horn played the part of Walpole, to the great profit of the land. But the "Hats," incited by French gold and hatred of Russia, then overthrew his "Nightcap" policy, and attempted to reconquer Petrograd (1741). The army proved to be rotten, and the Swedes were fortunate in escaping with the loss of a small portion of Finland (1743). They had sunk to the level of summoning a Russian force to defend them against the Danes.

In 1756 occurred a royal revolt against the doctrine of the Hats, that if the king refused to subscribe the decrees of the Council, his signature should be impressed by means of a stamp. Queen Louisa Ulrica, the fiery sister of Frederick the Great, inspired an abortive *coup d'état*, and the Hats, under Axel von Fersen, took full revenge. They exposed their own feebleness and their country's, however, by their futile attack on Prussia in the Seven Years' War (1756-62), and fell in 1765. While Hats and Caps alternately prevailed, Prussia, Russia and Denmark were planning the partition of Sweden. In August, 1772, however, the young king, Gustavus III. (1771-92), suddenly carried through a monarchical revolution. From a republic swayed by the Powers hostile to France, Sweden had become an autocracy supported by France and the mass of the people. For some years the "enlightened" despotism of Gustavus won

high praise. After a time, however, his mistakes and extravagance gave rise to opposition and even to plots. As a remedy, he attacked Russia in 1788, but was saved from overthrow only by the onslaught of Russia's ally, Denmark. Having roused his people, he was fortunate in defeating the Russian fleet, and the peace of 1790 cost Sweden no territory. The ruin of her finances would not have deterred her king from attempting to succour Louis of France, but early in 1792 he was assassinated at a masked ball.

During the minority of Gustavus IV. (1792-1809), the regency fell to Duke Charles, a weak though well-meaning brother of the late king. Gustavus III. had modelled himself on his uncle, Frederick the



The Swedish peasants, who until 1866 were a separate estate of the realm, being addressed by their king on the question of increased armaments necessary for adequate defence of the realm.



Great. After 1796 his son figured as a caricature of Charles XII. His puny efforts to play this part against Napoleon cost Sweden Finland, and himself the Swedish crown. For nine years (1809-18) his uncle reigned as Charles XIII. From 1810 to 1844, however, the dominant influence in Sweden was that of the French Marshal Bernadotte (Charles XIV.). The election and the conduct of Bernadotte were equally amazing. He was invited to the North through the sudden inspiration of a Swedish lieutenant sent to apprise Napoleon that an Augustenburg prince would be chosen. Once arrived there he threw off his devotion to the Emperor and his love for war, and steered Sweden into the path of tranquil prosperity from which she has never since departed. The reward of their joint services in aiding the overthrow of Napoleon took the form of the cession of Norway by the king of Denmark at Kiel in 1814.

Bernadotte and his descendants, Oscar I. (1844-59), Charles XV. (1859-72) and Oscar II. (1872-1907), restored to the Swedish crown, after a century of feeble or wayward monarchy, something of the Vasa lustre. In spite of not a few political conflicts, they bequeathed to the twentieth century a kingship which is much more than the crowned presidency of a republic. Peaceful beyond all precedent, Sweden has developed into one of the most free and most highly civilized nations of the modern world. While still predominantly agricultural, she possesses an urban population amounting to nearly one quarter of the whole. Within the last sixty years she has built up a railway system which surpasses all others in the proportion borne by its length to the number of the people. At the same time, her manufactures and her output of minerals have grown enormously, and in scientific appliances, such as telephones, she is unsurpassed. But for a state so thinly peopled and so poor as Sweden in 1815 such achievements would have been impossible without rigorous abstinence from war.



THE RIDDARHOLMS-KYRKA, STOCKHOLM.

Formerly a Franciscan church in which Swedish kings and heroes were buried. Since 1807 only kings have been buried here. The church has an openwork iron spire, 295 feet high.

Charles XV., a romantic sovereign, felt the appeal of the pan-Scandinavian spirit, and desired to succour Denmark in 1864. His shrewd minister, Louis de Geer, prevailed with him, however, to avoid a policy of adventure, and as neither France nor England would step in, only a few hundred volunteers crossed the

While the true argument of Swedish history during the nineteenth century is this peaceful transformation, it might appear superficially to consist in a barren struggle with the Norwegians. The events of 1813-15 inevitably gave to the Union a certain flavour of conquest, and made it difficult for Swedish men to govern acceptably in Norway. This difficulty was augmented by the fact that the Norwegian people were far more democratic than the Swedes, and that the security which they enjoyed under the House of Bernadotte caused their strength and their ambition to increase. Complete national independence gradually became their goal. In 1905 they deposed Oscar II., though inviting another member of his family to wear their crown. Sweden received this rebuff with admirable restraint. During the reign of Gustavus V., who succeeded to the throne in 1907, and especially during the Great War which broke out in 1914, the relations between the two countries have grown closer, and a new Scandinavianism seems likely to spring up. By heartily renouncing hopes of regaining Finland Sweden has removed the greatest danger from her path.

# DATES OF DANISH HISTORY

DYNASTY.	DATE. A.D.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Early (Viking) Rulers.	808	War between the Danes and Charles the Great.
	811	The Eider frontier established.
	826	Baptism of King Harald.
	878	Peace of Wedmore with Alfred the Great.
	985	Christianity prevails in Denmark.
	1002	Massacre of Danes in England.
	1018	Accession of Canute the Great.
	1035	Death of Canute. Dissolution of his empire follows.
Descendants of Estrid.	1086	Murder of King Knud, afterwards canonized.
	1100-1200	Great age of church-building in stone and brick.
	1104	Archbishopric of Lund established.
	1131	Outbreak of civil war.
	1169	Conquest of Rügen, maintained by Bishop Absalon.
	1200	Saxo Grammaticus, the chronicler, flourishes.
	1201	Death of Absalon, founder of Copenhagen.
	1219	Valdemar "the Victorious" at Volmar. The Dannebrog.
	1241	Death of Valdemar, after crushing reverses.
	1300	Denmark under interdict, after long strife between Church and State.
	1326-40	Feudal disunion at its height.
	1346	King Valdemar Atterdag sells Esthonia.
	1349	Outbreak of Black Death.
	1360	Valdemar secures Scania.
	1361	Valdemar chastises Visby.
	1370	The Hanse Towns secure recognition of their superiority. Peace of Stralsund.
Folkunger Family.	1376-87	Oluf is Valdemar's successor, but Margaret rules
	1386	The Holstein counts invested with Slesvig.
Sovereigns of all Scandinavia.	1397	Margaret secures pan-Scandinavian Union of Kalmar.
	1448	Christian of Oldenburg inaugurates the dynasty still regnant.
Oldenburg Family.	1450	Treaty of Bergen for indissoluble union with Norway.
	1460	Christian I. acquires Slesvig and Holstein.
	1479	University of Copenhagen inaugurated.
	1497	Union with Sweden renewed.
	1500	King Hans defeated by men of Ditmarsh at Hemmingstedt.
	1509-12	Naval war against Lübeck.
	1523	Flight of Christian II.
	1534-36	Great war, civil and foreign.
	1536	Diet of Copenhagen. Triumph of Christian III. and the Reformation.
	1563-70	Seven Years' War of the North.
	1625-29	Christian IV. participates in Thirty Years' War.
	1643-45	War with Sweden. Territorial loss.
	1657-60	Frederick III. at war with Charles X. of Sweden. Further loss.
	1660	The monarchy becomes autocratic.
	1665	The Royal Law signed in secret.
	1675-79	War of Scania with Sweden.
	1676	Fall of Count Griffenfeld.
	1683	First general code of law issued by Christian V.
	1684	Birth of Holberg, satirist and historian.
	1700	Frederick IV. attacks Charles XII. of Sweden. Peace of Traventhal.
	1709-20	War with Sweden. No recovery of territory.
	1725	Danger of attack by Russia. Subsequently renewed, especially in 1762.
	1728	Great fire at Copenhagen.
	1730-46	Christian VI.'s exaggerated piety and over-building.
	1752-70	J. H. E. Bernstorff minister.
	1770-72	Revolutionary reforms of Struensee, who is executed. Christian VII. divorces Queen Matilda.
	1772-1808	Christian VII. continues to reign, but is treated as unfit to rule.
	1772-84	Nationalist reaction under Guldberg.
	1784	The Crown Prince seizes power and retains it until his death as Frederick VI. in 1839.
	1784-97	A. P. Bernstorff's ministry and reforms. Peasant emancipation.
	1788	Attack upon Sweden.
	1800	Second Armed Neutrality.
	1801	Nelson's victory at Copenhagen.
	1807	Bombardment of Copenhagen and abduction of the fleet.
	1807-14	War with England, Sweden (until 1809) and other Powers.
	1813	National bankruptcy.
	1814	Treaty of Kiel. Norway renounced. Education law. Emancipation of the Jews.
	1815	Holstein, a crown fief, enters the German Confederation.
	1819	First Danish steamship.
	1820	H. C. Oersted discovers electro-magnetism.
	1838-44	Thorvaldsen ends his career at Copenhagen and is buried amid his works.
	1839-48	Christian VIII. reigns. He makes various futile attempts to solve the question of the Duchies.
	1842	National Liberal Party developed to secure the Eider frontier.
	1844	Great influence of Grundtvig on religious and national feeling.
	1845	Pan-Scandinavian meeting of students at Copenhagen.
	1846	Agrarian Society founded to further claims of peasants.
	1848-49	Frederick VII. sanctions a Constituent Assembly and its new Fundamental Law.
	1848-50	War ends in the temporary subjugation of Slesvig and Holstein.
	1842	Treaty of London. Great Powers and Scandinavia arrange for succession to indivisible Danish monarchy.
	1853	Cholera in Copenhagen. Sanitation reformed.
	1857	Guild system abolished. Freedom of career. Freedom to pass through the Sound purchased by maritime Powers.
	1858	Higher agricultural education, aided by new banks and railways, begins to transform economic life.
	1860	Agrarian reform movement in the direction of peasant proprietorship.
	1863	Christian IX. signs the November Constitution, which includes Slesvig.
	1864	War with the Duchies, Austria and Prussia. Peace of Vienna. Loss of Slesvig and Holstein.
	1866	Revised Fundamental Law enacted. Influence of landed proprietors increased.
	1867-1915	Northern Slesvig asserts in the German Diet its resolve to remain Danish.
	1870	Formation of Right and Left parties, followed (1871) by Social Democrats.
	1873	Common monetary system with Sweden and Norway on gold basis.
	1874	Iceland receives Home Rule.
	1875-94	The Estrup Ministry. Social reforms. Constitutional conflicts end in agreement.
	1906	Accession of Frederick VIII.
	1912	Accession of Christian X.
	1915	Scandinavian accord arranged by meeting of three kings at Malmö.

## CHAPTER XXVI

THE DANES. By W. F. REDDAWAY, M.A.

FOR several centuries after Christ the history of Denmark, like that of Norway and Sweden, remains obscure. In many respects the Southern Scandinavians developed on the lines already traced above. South of the Göta river, however, mountains cease and the land becomes more fertile. Hence small groups of settlers became the more easily united into larger peoples. Jutes emerged in the west, Danes in the east, and the superiority of the latter made Denmark the comprehensive name. Great forests severed the Danes from the Goths to their northward and from the Saxons and Slavs south of the Eider, thus aiding the growth of nationality. The intercourse of Denmark with Christian lands began with her Viking raids late in the eighth century, and these developed from mere forays into national conquests. Charlemagne's subjugation of the Saxons caused the Danes to fortify their southern frontier, especially by the rampart known as the Danevirk. The collision with the Empire consecrated the Eider as the Danish frontier.

In Denmark, also, Ansgar appeared as the herald of the Christian faith, but at his death in 865 the land remained unconverted and unchanged from a Viking into a state-builder, and in Denmark his reign witnessed the progress of the Church. Before his death heathendom survived only in remote regions; but the priests, and even the bishops, were for the most part foreigners, ill-paid, unprivileged, and but little regarded by the Danes.

After Canute's death, his empire soon fell to pieces. His son Hardeknud (1035-42) for a moment reunited Denmark with England; but his sudden death placed Denmark for a few years under Magnus of Norway. From 1047 onwards, however, the independence re-established by Svend, son of Estrid and grandson of Svend Forkbeard (1047-76), remained unimpaired. His dynasty endured until 1387, and from the first associated itself closely with the Church. Stone sanctuaries replaced those of wood, and eight bishoprics were established, of which the greatest was Lund. In the ecclesiastical sphere, as in so many other departments of Scandinavian endeavour, one great motive was to frustrate the intrusion of the Germans. The king himself retained lordship over the Danish Church.



Denmark is a small kingdom in Europe composed of one part of a peninsula and a group of islands which divide the Baltic and North Seas. The other part of the peninsula is Schleswig-Holstein, once belonging to Denmark, but seized by Germany in the Prusso-Danish War of 1864.

consolidated. A generation later, Gorm the Old, who ruled over all modern Denmark and Southern Sweden, resolutely championed the old faith. His consort Thyra, however, may have been a Christian, and under their son, Harald Bluetooth (c. 940-c. 985), the Cross gradually won the day. Harald's son, Svend Forkbeard, the first Danish king to coin money, prepared the way in England for her conquest by his second son, Canute. Between 1018 and 1035 Canute (Knud) the Great ruled over the greatest Danish empire in history. To Denmark and England he added the Wendish coast towards the Oder, and in 1028, Norway. In England, the country of his preference, he



From the painting

#### BRINGING NEWS OF RELIEF TO FLORENCE.

by F. W. W. Topham, H.R.I., R.O.I.

In 1496 the unhappy state of Florence was further aggravated by the death of its ablest and most disinterested statesman, Pier Capponi. The league—comprising Pope Alexander VI, the Emperor Maximilian I, Venice, and Spain—now attacked Florence. The Pope was determined to destroy the Republic, and to temporarily reinstate the Medici family, thus preparing the way for his own sons. The Venetians besieged Leghorn, and there was great misery in Florence. However, the enemy were beaten, and the league, showing signs of dissolution, enabled the Florentines to alleviate the distress in their own city.



From 1076 to 1134 five of Svend's sons successively filled his throne. Knud the Holy (1080-86), a strange mixture of piety and tyranny, began to endow the Church and to confer privileges upon her. He was slain before the altar at Odense by rebel hands, canonized at the instance of his brother, Erik "Evergood" (1095-1103), and became in course of time the patron saint of Denmark. Under Erik, who died on crusade, Lund became an archbishopric, and a long struggle to repel the incursions of the heathen Wends was begun.

For fully half a century (1103-57) Denmark fell under weak or disputed government. The feebleness of King Niels was offset by the vigour of his nephew, King Erik's son Knud, surnamed "Lord"; but after his foul murder by his cousin in 1131, nothing stood between the Danes and ruin. Suddenly, however, a dreary chapter in their history ended with the triumph of Valdemar, Knud "Lord's" son, over his rivals, and more than half a century of triumph followed.

Until his death in 1201, the soul of Denmark was the learned and eloquent bishop, Abs-

strengthened, as a sign that homage to the Emperor was repudiated. When Valdemar was succeeded by his son Knud VI. (1182-1202), Barbarossa therefore incited the Duke of Pomerania to attack Rügen. But Absalon won a famous victory (1184), Mecklenburg and Pomerania submitted, and the kings of Denmark dared to style themselves Kings of the Wends.

Knud's brother and successor, Valdemar II. (1202-41), gained by his earlier exploits the style of "the Victorious." He became lord of Holstein, secured the Emperor's concession of everything north of the Elbe, and concluded a crusade in Esthonia by a brilliant victory near Reval (1219). The town of that name was founded, the war-flag, the Dannebrog, descended, as was believed, from heaven, and the land was retained as a Danish province until 1346. The treacherous abduction of the king by Count Henry of Schwerin, however, shook the whole Danish empire (1223), and his defeat by the Germans at

salon, "the father of the people." His invincible energy earned for his foster-brother Valdemar (1157-82) the title of "the Great." A series of crusades kept down the Wends, rendered the seas secure, and in 1169 brought about the conquest of Rügen. Copenhagen, originating like Stockholm in coast defence, was founded by Absalon. The Danevirk was greatly



THE APPROACH OF THE DANES.

The most characteristic feature of the Danish invasions of England was their extreme suddenness: and the English, by reason of their unreadiness, were almost invariably overwhelmed by this fierce foe. Here the people are seen flocking with their belongings into defences hastily erected against the approaching onrush of the Danes.



*From the painting*

#### THE DANES COMING UP THE ENGLISH CHANNEL.

[By Herbert A. Bone.

The Danes first appeared in England about 793, and from this time onwards for a period of many years their visits to the shores of every English kingdom became frequent and furious. Even though several crushing defeats were inflicted on them which procured peace in England for a few years, the Danish invasions were a recurring evil until the reign of King Alfred. The scene depicts watchers on the coasts of the South of England signalling the approach of the Danes, whose ships are seen under full sail coming up the Channel.

Bornhöved (1227) left only Rügen and Esthonia of his lands beyond the Eider. He therefore turned to the fulfilment of his famous motto, "With law shall the land be built," and closed his reign with the issue of the Jutish code (1241).

The progress of Denmark had now resulted in the rise of three powers which had hitherto worked in concert, but whose disunion during the century after Valdemar's death brought her to the brink of ruin. These were the monarchy, the aristocracy and the Church. From petty chieftains the kings had become rich, supreme in war, and the fountains of law and justice. At the same time an aristocracy had been created by that change in the art of war which made the mail-clad knight incomparably superior to the peasant fighting on foot. Those who could pay for armour and a horse became the privileged nobles of Denmark. Soon they would reduce the peasants to the level of their dependents. The Church, meanwhile, was on the way towards securing full immunity from lay taxation, jurisdiction and control.

Valdemar the Victorious left three sons. The first, Erik, succeeded him, but was foully slain by a servant of his brother Abel (1250). Abel cleared himself of the crime by compurgation and gained the throne. Two years later he was killed by rebels, and the nobles chose his brother, Christopher I., rather than his sons, whose resentment and claims to the Duchy of Jutland complicated the strife which now broke out between the new monarch and the Church. In Denmark, no less than in other lands, the accession of a strong prelate led swiftly to a demand for

ecclesiastical independence. Jacob, son of Erland, elected Archbishop of Lund against the will of the king, demanded nothing short of the complete abrogation of lay sovereignty over the Church, and secured a majority of ecclesiastics in favour of laying Denmark under interdict if the king should presume to coerce a bishop. Both sides resorted to violence. In 1259, when the archbishop had been imprisoned and civil war had begun, Christopher died, under circumstances which suggested poison. His son, Erik Klipping (1259-86), spent a doleful minority while the long struggle between



*From the painting]*

*[By Herbert A. Bone.*

#### THE SUBMISSION OF GUTHRUM TO KING ALFRED.

Alfred was the only English king who thoroughly overcame the Danish leader, Guthrum. After several engagements, in which they suffered severely, the Danes were subdued in A.D. 878. Guthrum and his chiefs are here depicted paying homage to Alfred in his camp. Shortly after, Guthrum was baptized, taking the name Aethelstan, and eventually ruled in East Anglia as a Christian sovereign.



Church and State dragged on to an inconclusive compromise, and ruled for fourteen years amid strife with Sweden, Norway and the Danish nobles. At last a party of rebels disguised as monks murdered him, and, though exiled, continued the strife with his son, Erik Maendved (1286-1319). Their connection with Archbishop Jens Grand involved him in deposition, and the Pope retaliated with an

interdict which excluded Denmark from the Indulgence of 1300, the great year of jubilee. Erik made submission to the Church, but succeeded in bridleing the nobles and asserting his authority over many princes and cities in Northern Germany.

Erik's death, however, showed on how loose a foundation the Danish monarchy was built. Bankruptcy, disputed succession, capitulation to the nobles, the intrusion of Count Gert and other princes of Holstein, the partition of the kingdom and eight years' interregnum followed. Then in 1340 the Jutish noble Niels, the son of Ebbe, slew Gert and saved the State. By an agreement made at Lübeck among the nobles, the royal line was restored, and Valdemar Atterdag (1340-75) was crowned king.

Valdemar was confronted at his accession with a task which might well have daunted any ruler. His authority was undisputed only in perhaps one-quarter of Jutland. The royal power had in great measure been usurped by the nobles and the Church. The peasants, the natural allies of the monarchy, were sinking into serfs. The wealth that might come from trade was fast passing into the hands of the Germans, and Germans were penetrating into Southern Jutland.



*From the painting*

[By Herbert A. Bone.]

#### KING ALFRED IN THE CAMP OF GUTHRUM, A.D. 878.

Alfred the Great, having entrenched himself and his forces against the Danes at Athelney, sought to circumvent the enemy by stratagem. The king disguised himself as a strolling minstrel, and by playing the harp and singing effected an entrance into the Danish camp, where he learnt of the enemy's plans.

On the other hand, the Danes had received a bitter lesson on the evils of anarchy. The Church and the peasants were ready to rally round a vigorous king, and some at least of the nobles sought the same refuge against the violence of the Germans. Thus encouraged, the king reconquered his kingdom within twenty years of his accession. Nay more, he ruled Denmark as none of his predecessors had done, for he had resumed lands granted to the nobles, substituted king's courts for the enfeebled popular courts and added to the burden of taxation. In strength rather than in weakness, he associated with himself a



*Painted specially for this work*

#### THE MURDER OF KNUD THE SAINT, 1086.

*[By M. Dornation, R.B.A., N.B.A.]*

Knud the Saint, King of Denmark, elevated the position of the clergy to one of great power, which novel reform was not altogether popular. When the king sought to introduce a tax on the people for the sole benefit of ecclesiastics open rebellion broke out in 1086. Knud fled with a few faithful adherents to the church at Odense, where the rebels overtook him. In spite of a brave defence by his two brothers, Knud was assassinated while praying at the altar.

council of the great officers of state, bishops and chief burgomasters, and thus definitely improved the Danish Constitution.

In his relations with foreign powers Valdemar showed the same energy and firmness. Having sold distant Esthonia to the Knights of the Sword, he married his daughter Margaret to the king of Norway and recovered Scania without alienating Sweden. In 1361, however, he conquered Gothland and plundered Wisby, "the Queen of the Baltic." This caused the Swedes to overthrow their king, Magnus, and to become Valdemar's foes, while the mighty Hanse League amply humiliated the offender. Valdemar, none the less, was preparing to reincorporate Slesvig with his own domains, when in 1375 he died. Valdemar's heir was his infant grandson Oluf (1375-87), whose reign witnessed the firm consolidation of his mother Margaret's power. By her skill and firmness, she brought about the Union of Kalmar between the three Scandinavian kingdoms in 1397, and rendered Denmark at once more peaceful and more



*From the painting]*

VALDEMAR ATTERDAG AT WISBY.

*[By C. G. Hellquist.*

In 1361 Valdemar Atterdag, King of Denmark, raised and led an armed expedition into Wisby in the island of Gothland, one of the richest cities in Europe and the principal trading station of the Hanseatic League on the Baltic. The king levied outrageous taxes on the inhabitants and infamously plundered the city, alleging that the citizens had sung satirical songs about him.

powerful than any of her predecessors had done. She, like her father, was on her way to solve the Slesvig question when in 1412 she fell a victim to the plague.

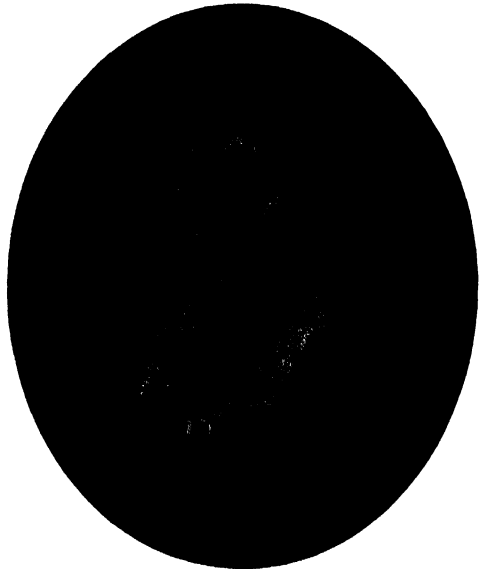
Margaret's grand-nephew, Erik of Pomerania, ruled from 1412 to 1439, but failed by process of law or by force of arms to extinguish the claims of the house of Holstein upon Slesvig. In attempting to curb the Hansards, he gained somewhat greater success, but as a childless man, he found his sceptres burdensome, and quitted both his kingdoms. In Denmark the Council chose his nephew, Christopher of Bavaria (1439-48), and after him, Christian of Oldenburg (1448-81).

The reign of the founder of the Oldenburg dynasty, which is still enthroned at Copenhagen, left a lasting impress upon Danish history. It was to Christian I., who visited Rome, that papal permission was accorded for the foundation in 1479 of a university in his capital. He secured the consent of the Norwegian Council to a union between Denmark and Norway, which endured from 1450 to 1814. He strove, moreover, to assert his rights over Sweden, but suffered defeat by Sten Sture in 1471. Most important of all was his treatment of Slesvig and Holstein. Thanks to the influx of Germans from



John I (Hans) (1455-1513) ruled Denmark when the country was incessantly at war, while plague and famine both occurred in his reign.

Holstein into Slesvig, the duchies now loathed the thought of separation from each other. But Christian had it in his power to incorporate Slesvig with his other possessions. He was therefore enabled to secure Holstein also. In 1460 it was agreed that both fiefs, the one Danish, the other German, should remain an inseparable heritage in his family. Their Estates were,



Christian II. (1513-1531), King of Denmark, Norway and Sweden. He massacred all the prominent men in Stockholm and was dethroned by Gustavus Vasa.

however, bound only to choose one of the sons of their late lord. This acquisition extended the authority of the King of Denmark to the mouth of the Elbe. Christian's son Hans (1481-1513) defeated Sten Sture, and in 1497 renewed for a moment the union of all Scandinavia. In 1500, however, he set out with his brother Frederick, who ruled half of each duchy, to subdue the thriving peasant republic of the Ditmarsh. Their army appeared irresistible, but suffered a severe defeat amid the marshes. Sweden seized the opportunity to revolt, supported by Lübeck and other Hansa towns. The war which followed deserves renown because it gave occasion for the building of the Danish fleet.

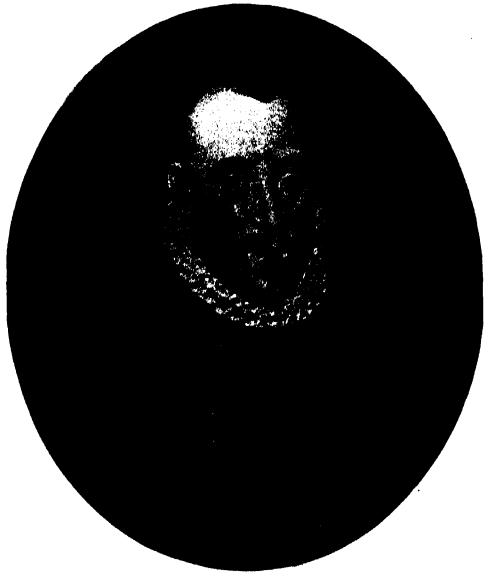
In 1513 Hans was succeeded by his son, Christian II., who had already learned to rule Norway by fear. The ever-increasing pretensions of the nobles found expression in the charter which they forced

upon the king. By this he pledged himself to increase the authority of the gentry over their peasants, to refrain from attempting to secure the succession of his son, to submit to the "instruction" of the Council and to coercion by the people if he broke his promises.

With such fetters did the nobles attempt to bind the most turbulent of Denmark's kings.



Christian III. (1534-1559) destroyed the influence of the Hansa towns in Norway and Sweden, and was a just and wise ruler.



Frederick II. (1559-1588) waged war with Sweden, experienced dissensions in his kingdom, and was very intolerant in his religious beliefs.

Christian, regardless of all human restraint, attempted in one decade as much as any of his predecessors or successors in thrice as long a reign. He wedded a sister of Charles V., only to insult her by publicly retaining his low-born Dutch mistress; smote down the resistance of Sweden at the Blood Bath of Stockholm; explored the Netherlands; secured the surrender of Holstein, and challenged Lübeck. At home he strove to annihilate the independence of the Church and coquetted with the new Lutheran teaching. In plain defiance of the charter, he planned to make the Danish crown hereditary, and to raise it high above all rivals. His treatment of Didrik Slaghek, his unworthy favourite, whom he first designated as archbishop and then publicly burned in Copenhagen, was characteristic of his



*From the painting]*

CHRISTIAN II. BESIDE THE BODY OF DYVEKE.

*[By O. Wergeland.*

In 1507, when Crown Prince, Christian II, met Dyveke in Bergen, where her mother had opened an inn. She became his mistress and accompanied him to Denmark. Although the king married, in 1515, Isabella of Burgundy, his relations with Dyveke were still maintained and only terminated on the death of the unfortunate girl, under suspicious circumstances, in 1517.

methods. Yet his care for the burghers and peasants and his championship of the Danes, especially of the men of Copenhagen, against foreign intruders won him an abiding place in their affections.

No ally within his kingdom, however, could compensate for those whom he had estranged. Gustavus Vasa roused the Swedes; Lübeck sent a fleet; his uncle, Frederick of Gottorp, struck for Holstein; the Jutish nobles renounced their allegiance and the Dutch withdrew their support. Christian himself lost heart, and in 1523 was supplanted by his uncle.

Frederick I. (1523-33) owed his crown to the great nobles, who promptly claimed increased power and the suppression of the Lutheran heresy. He enjoyed considerable freedom of action, however, for he lived quietly at Gottorp, and coerced the Council by threatening to resign in favour of Christian II. Thus secured in power, he shielded the Lutheran preachers, among whom Hans Tausen, "the Danish Luther," ranked as chief. In contrast with Sweden and Norway, there existed in Denmark a spiritual



From the painting]

#### STEN STURE LIBERATING QUEEN CHRISTINA FROM THE CONVENT OF VADSTENA.

When Hans I. ascended the Danish throne in 1481 he had to contend against Sten Sture, the powerful Administrator of Norway and Sweden. In 1496, however, the king wrested the regency from Sture by force and ruled these two countries himself. But in 1501 the position was reversed, and Hans sailed secretly for Copenhagen, leaving his queen, Christina, with a thousand adherents, to defend Stockholm, which was invested. Christina capitulated, and was imprisoned in the convent of Vadstena, but two years later was liberated and conducted to the frontier by Sten Sture.

[By E. Josephson.

revolt against Rome, as well as a desire on the part of the king and nobles to pillage a corporation which owned more than one-third of the soil. On Frederick's death, the battle of the Reformation was fiercely fought out. His eldest son, Christian, appeared as the candidate of the nobles and of Lutheranism, and found an ally in Gustavus Vasa. But Christian II., now a captive and the champion of Catholicism, was supported by the burghers and peasants and by Lübeck. From 1534 to 1536 the struggle raged with varying fortune. But the troops of the duchies, led by a scion of the great house of Rantzau, gave Christian III. (1534-59) the victory, and with him the Lutheran Church. The peasants and their allies of Lübeck sank in importance, and the crown gained both wealth and power. Thanks to the Reformation, its estates comprised half the kingdom. The seal was set upon this revolution, for it was nothing less, by the great Diet of Copenhagen of 1536. The reorganization of the Church was entrusted to



*From the painting]*

*[By W. Marstrand.*

#### CHRISTIAN IV. AT THE BATTLE OF KOLBERG.

The battle of Kolberg was a fierce naval engagement between the Swedes and the Danes in 1640. Christian IV. commanded the Danish squadron in person from his flagship, the "Trinity." Although badly wounded, the king infused such courage into his sailors that the enemy was badly beaten.

Bugenhagen, a friend of Luther, and the zealous and omnipotent king forced upon Norway at least a show of conformity.

An incidental but important consequence of the Reformation consisted in the ecclesiastical severance of Slesvig from Denmark and its union with Holstein. This favoured the progress northward of the German element, and paved the way for the catastrophe of the nineteenth century.

In sharp contrast to his father the "priest-king," Frederick II. (1559-88) was a roystering hard drinker. In his younger days he subdued the brave men of Ditmarsh and involved his country in the grim and profitless Seven Years' War of the North (1563-70). Later, he built Kronborg, an apt symbol of his claim to dominate the Baltic, at whose portal the fair castle stands. In his son, Christian IV. (1588-1648), Denmark gained the first monarch whom she still holds in intimate and affectionate remembrance. Born and bred among his people and happy in their society, toiling from dawn for their



Christian IV., King of Norway and Denmark (1596-1648), strengthened his country's maritime power, extended its commerce and increased inland trade.

advantage and sharing in their failings, he constrained them to forgive the evils which his recklessness brought upon the state. His charming Renaissance buildings and ambitious commercial ventures cost Denmark dear; but she suffered far more from his three unprofitable wars. In the last of these (1643-5), although provinces were lost, the old king gained undying fame.



Frederick III. of Denmark (1648-1670). War with Sweden and the aggrandisement of the monarchy were the chief events in his reign.

Having organized the national defence and driven off the Dutch, he did not suffer a score of wounds to prevent him from checking the Swedes by sea. His reign closed, however, with a fresh surrender of powers to the nobles.

This surrender his son, Frederick III. (1648-70), was compelled to confirm, as the price of coronation. A reserved and learned prince, he yet possessed sufficient determination to overthrow the greatest of his nobles, Korfits Ulfeld and Hannibal Sehested, and to brave Charles X. of Sweden. He lost Scania, but gained the most absolute monarchy in Europe. The nobles, of whom some one hundred and fifty families owned half Denmark and ruled the whole land, had shown reluctance either to fight or to pay taxes, and the remaining Estates contrived a revolution. At the Diet of 1660, the Crown was made hereditary and Frederick seized autocratic power.

He was fortunate in discovering, and Christian V. (1670-99) in retaining for a time, the most brilliant statesman to whom Denmark has given birth. Count Griffenfeld, the son



Tycho Brahe (1546-1601). This Swedish astronomer discovered a new star (Cassiopeia) in 1572, and studied successfully for twenty years in an observatory founded by himself.

of a Copenhagen wine-merchant, and a disciple of Hobbes, became by sheer ability an omnipotent minister and the author of the secret Royal Law—the charter of Danish absolutism. In 1676, however, he fell, since the war-party had gained the ear of the martial king and made the fruitless war of Scania (1675-79). In this war Niels Juel won great fame by destroying with twenty-five ships a Swedish fleet of thirty-six. The Oldenburgs, paternal rulers, but by no means remarkable for talent, were now absolute. For generations they jealously watched their former rivals, the nobles, and governed chiefly through officials of



burgher birth, or noble immigrants from Germany. This new court nobility became counts and barons, while the ambition of the burghers was appeased by the conferment upon them of various degrees of rank. In 1683 Christian V. published a code of law applicable to the whole of Denmark, but not to Slesvig.

Frederick IV. (1699-1730), abolished the worst form of serfage and profited by his wars with Charles XII. to seize the portion of Slesvig which belonged to the Gottorp line. His son, Christian VI. (1730-46), was the most rigidly pious and the most pompous of the Oldenburgs. He powerfully furthered the incursion of Germans, and the administration passed largely into their hands. Under him the foible of paternal government, with its attempts to regulate everything, became especially conspicuous. In order to fill the ranks of the army, the peasants were inhibited from changing their abode between their fourteenth and thirty-fifth year. The second centenary of the Danish Reformation was marked by the



*From the painting]*

*[By J. P. Serres.*

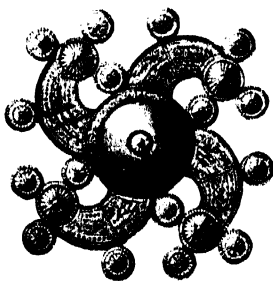
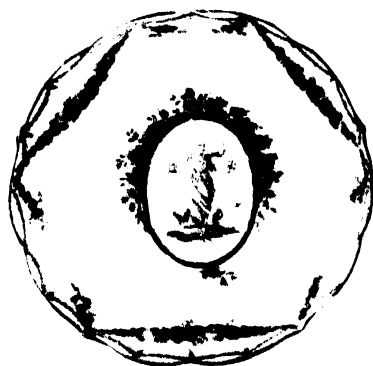
#### THE BATTLE OF COPENHAGEN

The battle of Copenhagen was fought between the English and Danish fleets in 1801, and lasted with extreme fury for five or six hours. The Danes fought with extraordinary bravery and inflicted enormous losses upon the enemy, both in men and ships. The engagement was brought to a close by an armistice which paved the way to further negotiations.

introduction of Confirmation, which provided on the religious side for the extended education that Christian actively furthered.

The pietistic Christian VI. gave place in 1746 to his son, Frederick V., a gracious and convivial king, who reigned for twenty years but never dismissed a minister. He was zealously served by Moltke and the elder Bernstorff, members of German families. Bernstorff, indeed, who united wide knowledge and generous enthusiasm with great talent as a diplomatist and the highest character as a man, achieved a European reputation. Predominant in both home and foreign affairs, he cherished wider ambitions for Denmark than her resources warranted, and the taxes became heavier than the people could bear. Copenhagen grew, but in the country districts, where agriculture remained primitive and the Crown had sold many of its rights to harsh newcomers, population declined.

Frederick's death from his excesses inaugurated the most extraordinary drama in Danish history. His son, Christian VII., a grandson of George II., succeeded at seventeen. His talent was reputed high, but he possessed neither character nor training for his post. An immediate marriage with Caroline Matilda, sister of George III., did not check his career of vice, and in a few years he became unfit to



[Victoria and Albert Museum, London.]

#### DANISH ART.

Reading from left to right : Gold-mounted silver buckle, about 450; white porcelain basin, painted in colours, with decoration in gold, eighteenth century; brooch, ornamented with precious stones, about 450; white porcelain plate, painted in colours, with gilt decoration, eighteenth century; gold-plated silver swastika brooch, about 450; white porcelain cup and lid, painted in colours and decorated with gilding, eighteenth century; chocolate pot and lid, of white porcelain, painted in colours and decorated with gilding, eighteenth century; drinking horn, carved with scroll-work and brass-mounted, Icelandic, eighteenth century; vase and two covers of white porcelain, painted in colours and decorated with a floral design, eighteenth century.

govern. The situation placed supreme influence for rather more than a year in the hands of a young German doctor, Struensee, and in that brief space Denmark underwent a violent reformation. The government was carried on with disdainful disregard of all traditions, prejudices and vested interests when they did not conform with Struensee's ideas of abstract justice or of the needs of the State. Struensee had the courage and energy to attempt everything at once, and the fanaticism to act as though the truth was self-evident and must prevail. He made the common Prussian mistake of stifling his genial instincts in order to rule by fear, and therefore gained no friends. His guilty connection with the queen shocked many Danes; his apparent contempt for Lutheranism, far more, but no one stirred until he touched the army. Then, in January, 1772, he and his associates, as well as the queen, were seized in the night by conspirators, who also possessed themselves of the king's person. For the queen a lifelong confinement was prepared, but Sir Robert Keith dared on his own responsibility to threaten war with England, a service to his sister which George III. instantly rewarded by the red riband of the Bath. Struensee, after a remarkable conversion to the Christian faith, suffered a barbarous execution. So far as possible his work was undone by the narrow pietist, Guldberg, until in



A BIVOUAC SCENE IN SCHLESWIG, 1848.

In 1848 a demand was made by the Estates of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein to be incorporated as a constitutional state in the German Confederacy. Prussian troops were sent into Holstein, and by special powers of the Diet of Holstein the Prussians, under General Wrangel, also occupied Schleswig.

1784 the Crown Prince Frederick seized the helm of State, and the younger Bernstorff initiated a new era in Danish history.

The reforms which led to the evolution of modern Denmark were prepared by that new disposition to criticize existing institutions and to demand more equitable treatment for the poor which had found startling expression in Struensee. But although signs of new life had appeared after the struggle with Charles XII., and although Holberg was a genius, and Thorwaldsen and Andersen were growing up, Denmark in this age must be pronounced somewhat barren. In war and government, in law, medicine and theology, in art, diplomacy and finance, almost everything that surpassed mediocrity came from abroad. Struensee, though he knew neither the land nor the people, enlisted a few men of talent, but the jealous Danes restored the old edifice after his fall.

It remained for the younger Bernstorff (1784-97) to secure the transition to the new era. A strong, upright, self-sufficient minister, his vision was wide and his movements singularly direct. Inspired by him, Denmark abolished the slave trade, began to emancipate the Jews, established a free Press and free commerce, and made great strides towards national education. Chief of all, she destroyed serfage, and—against the will of the peasants—effected an agrarian revolution. Henceforward the land was in

great part owned by free cultivators, who derived from it produce far more varied and abundant than the medieval system had permitted. The population grew, and by reason of Denmark's neutrality in the great European war, her wealth grew faster still.

After Bernstorff's death in 1797, however, the influence of the narrow and obstinate Crown Prince brought misfortunes upon his country. As in 1780, Denmark joined with Russia and Sweden in an Armed Neutrality to uphold her reading of maritime law, and Nelson inflicted upon her the naval defeat of 1801. Six years later, when France and England were struggling for downfall. England, besides losing thousands of merchantmen to Danish gunboats and privateers, inflicted upon her reputation a stain which a century has not completely wiped away. The Crown Prince, who ruled as Frederick VI. (1808-39), failed either to secure Scania by conquest or all Sweden by election. His path crossed that of Bernadotte, who coveted Norway, and in 1813 their armies fought at Sehested, in Holstein. There, as in the whole conflict, the Danes showed conspicuous valour, and Grundtvig, the bard and teacher of the people, exhorted the students to rally every able-bodied man. In January, 1814, however, the king signed the Peace of Kiel. Norway and Heligoland were renounced, and only the little duchy of Lauenburg acquired. A further loss was that of the loyalty of the younger men of Holstein, who shared in the German aspirations for freedom. To them the War of Liberation against Napoleon made an irresistible appeal, while their sovereign supported the enemy.

Denmark emerged from the great European conflict humiliated and bankrupt, and with the greatest problems in her history still unsolved. Neither the economic career of her people nor their political liberties nor even the extent of their dominion, could as yet be predicted. Agriculture, it is true, was on the road towards improvement, but had not progressed far. In commerce the

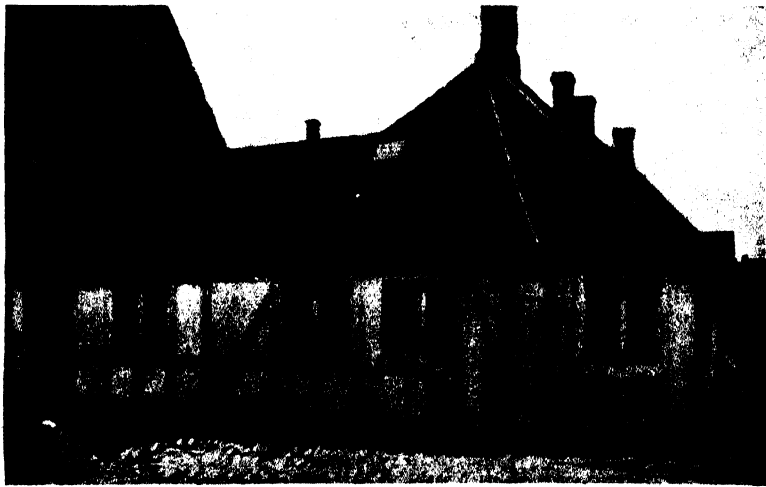


HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN.

The Danish author, Hans Christian Andersen, is chiefly remembered for his fantastic fairy tales, which brought him universal fame, but he was also a novelist and dramatist. He died at Copenhagen in 1875.

existence, her neutrality became impossible. France and Russia conspired to force her into their system, and England dispatched a fleet with a demand for the surrender of the Danish warships. Having vainly offered alliance, restitution after the war, compensation, even territorial aggrandisement, she secured some seventy ships by a cruel bombardment of Copenhagen.

The results to both sides were disastrous. Denmark, although more vulnerable by sea than by land, flung herself into the arms of France, only to lose her commerce, and to become bankrupt (1813). She was cut off from Norway for several years and dismembered on Napoleon's



THE BIRTHPLACE OF HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN.

Hans Andersen was the son of a poor shoemaker of Odense, in Fünen, where he was born on the 2nd of April, 1805. He lived with his parents in one small room of the cottage seen here.

Danes were still hampered by their adhesion to their right of taxing all ships which passed through the Sound; a practice which seriously impeded the rise of Copenhagen. They lacked capital, technical education and stimulating contact with the outer world, and were burdened

with the support of an army relatively large. In the domain of politics, Frederick VI., beloved by the Danes for his misfortunes, could never be brought beyond the limits of benevolent despotism. In practice, however, his subjects enjoyed greater freedom than was conceded to their neighbours in Germany. This was illustrated by the transference into Denmark of a newspaper which the new German Confederation had forbidden to appear at Kiel. As wealth and knowledge progressed, however, the demand for more perfect right to manage their own affairs was bound to increase among the people, and to make itself heard as soon as the old king passed away. The most difficult of all political questions

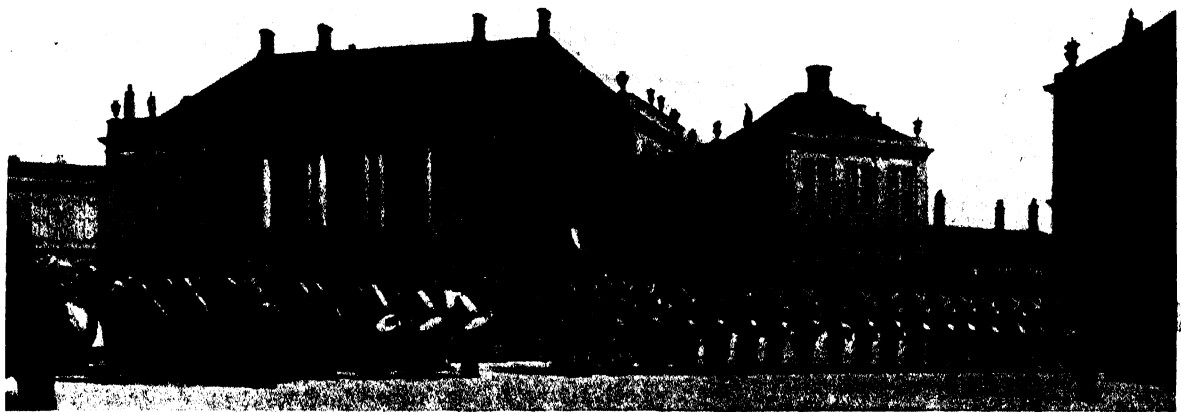


Frederick VIII. (1843-1912) was the eldest son of Christian IX. By marriage ties his family are closely connected with the English royal family.

more Conservative section. At the same time, the ideal of a Pan-Scandinavian union seized the imagination of the student class, and a group of fiery orators clamoured for a constitution. In January, 1848, there succeeded in Frederick VII. a monarch of a familiar Danish type, neither able nor virtuous, but genial and beloved by the people. In the European whirlwind of that year the Danes found themselves opposed by the Germans of Schleswig-Holstein. They closed their ranks as never before nor since, and defeated the enemy at Bov only to find themselves face to face with the Prussians. None the less, though defeated on land, they were able to strangle Prussian commerce by sea, and they received large assistance from Sweden and diplomatic assistance from England and Russia. As the Liberal movement in Prussia collapsed the position of the Danes became stronger, and finally Prussia withdrew her support from the rebels. The Danes reconquered Schleswig; Austria and Prussia assisted in the coercion of Holstein; an unstable peace followed, and Denmark turned to the enjoyment of the new liberty conferred upon her by the Fundamental Law of 1849. This established a Diet, together with freedom of the Press, religious liberty, and the right of public meeting.

was one which also vitally concerned the extension of the State.

It has perhaps sufficiently appeared in the course of this history that the Schleswig-Holstein question was practically insoluble, since the duchies could neither be severed from Denmark nor from Germany nor from each other, nor in any way divided up without an appeal to force. During the lifetime of Frederick VI. the question was not acute, but the advent of his nephew, Christian VIII. (1839-1848), committed the solution of a growing problem to a vacillating though well-meaning king. Under him the national Liberal party, which aimed substantially at incorporating Schleswig and disregarding Holstein, began to confront the



A REVIEW OF TROOPS AT THE AMALIENBORG PALACE.

There are four palaces encircling the Amalienborg-Plads. The King's palace, seen behind the troops, two which are occupied by the Crown Prince and other members of the royal family, and a fourth containing the coronation and state rooms. The Amalienborg palaces, formerly the property of noble families, were transferred to the royal family in 1794.

The restoration of peace, however, only revealed more clearly that the great problem had not been solved by war. The monarchy in Denmark proper was now constitutional, while in the duchies it remained absolute. Russia, Austria and Prussia all objected to any further extension of liberty. But while Russia wished Denmark to retain Holstein, lest Kiel should become the headquarters of a German fleet, Austria and Prussia could not so far defy German feeling as to acquiesce in the permanent sanction a constitution devised by the "Eider Danes."

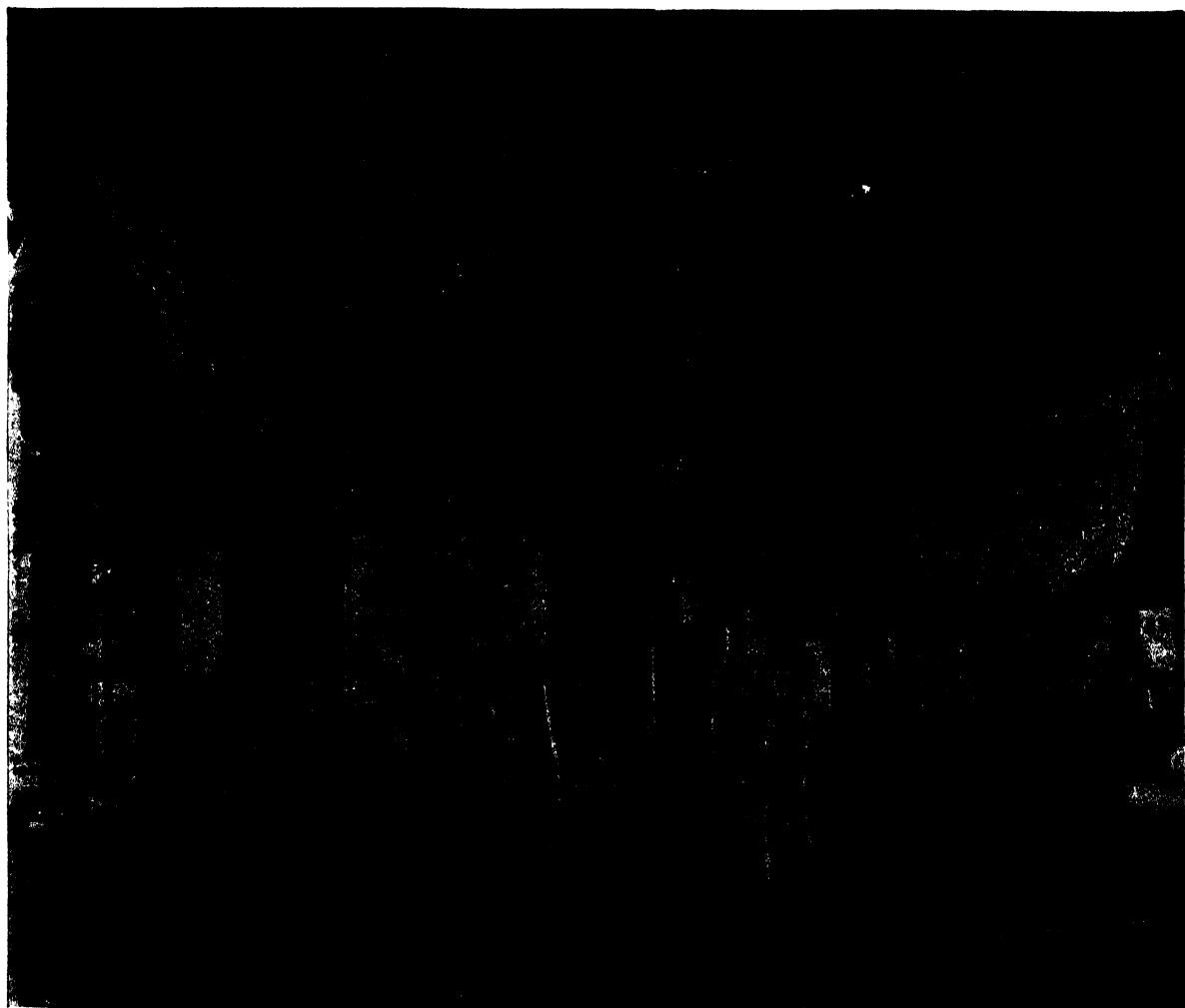


Christian X., the eldest son of the late Frederick VIII. of Denmark, was born in 1870, and married in 1898 Princess Alexandrina of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. He succeeded his father as king in 1912.

estrangement of that province. The King of Denmark wished to retain all his dominions; the duchies, to remain united; a growing majority of the Danes, to make the Eider their boundary. The question was further complicated by the fact that the heir who would probably succeed Frederick VII. in the kingdom did not possess an unquestioned claim to the allegiance of the duchies.

In November, 1863, Frederick VII. suddenly died, at the very moment when he was about to

His successor, Christian IX. (1863-1906),



[Photo by]

THE DINING HALL, FREDERIKSBORG PALACE.

[Underwood & Underwood.

The Palace of Frederiksborg, which stands in a park in the western quarter of Copenhagen, was built during the reign of Frederick IV. (1699-1730). It contains fine apartments, which have been restored within recent times with all the splendour of the seventeenth century.

buoyed up by hopes of foreign support, ventured to carry out this plan, which was, in effect, a defiance of the arrangements made by the Great Powers in 1852. Bismarck was not slow to seize his opportunity, and to begin, at the expense of Denmark, the great forward movement of the Prussian State and armies. Thanks to his skill and resolution, Denmark found herself in 1864 confronting, not only her own rebels, but the armed might of both Austria and Prussia.

The most painful of all her disappointments consisted in the collapse of the Pan-Scandinavian movement, when the hour of sacrifice arrived. Neither her valour which was unquestionable, nor her statesmanship, which led her to fight on rather than assent to the partition of Schleswig recommended by England, availed to ward off her ruin. Fighting ceased in July, and after three months' negotiation, peace was signed at Vienna. The duchies were lost in their entirety, and the Danes of Northern Schleswig passed ere long under the harsh rule of Prussia.



Photo by]

[Underwood &amp; Underwood.

#### CHRISTIAN X. AT A REVIEW.

The Great European war which broke out in 1914 gave a strong national impulse to the Danish people. A review was held by the King of Denmark, and a mobilisation of the troops was undertaken to support the maintenance of neutrality.

Thus humiliated and reduced, the Danes accepted their position as a small nation, and set to work to become as learned, rich and free as possible. In this they have attained remarkable success, though at the price of long-drawn-out political contests. The task of Christian IX., whose momentous reign closed in 1906, and of his two successors has been in great part to uphold the monarchy and to assuage the strife of parties in a more and more democratic nation. For many years after 1870 a struggle raged with regard to the right of the Government to spend money which had not been voted by both Houses and to provide without their joint concurrence for national defence. In 1894, however, a compromise was reached, and the Radical majority in the Lower House condoned the fortification of Copenhagen.

The events of 1905 led to the establishment of a Danish prince upon the throne of Norway, and the Great War has developed the intimacy between the three Scandinavian kingdoms. Denmark, as the most vulnerable among them, has perhaps the strongest interest in the maintenance of her hard-won peace.

# DATES OF ITALIAN HISTORY

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Ostrogoths (476-568).	476	Odoacer proclaimed King.
	477	Odoacer gains Sicily from the Vandals.
	489	Odoacer conquered by the Ostrogoths.
	493	Odoacer killed. Theodoric becomes ruler of Italy.
	526	Theodoric dies. Athalaric succeeds as the ward of Amalasuntha.
	535	Amalasuntha killed by Theodat. Belisarius invades Italy.
	537	Vitiges besieges Belisarius in Rome.
	542	Totila restores the fortune of the Goths.
	552	Narses invades Italy. Totila slain.
	553	Ostrogothic kingdom comes to an end with the death of Tejas. Narses becomes Exarch of Ravenna.
Lombards (568-774).	568	Alboin invades Italy.
	572	Alboin slain by his wife Rosamunda
	590	Agilulf marries Theudelinda.
	636	Rotari succeeds to the throne and remodels the Lombard laws.
	712	Luitprand, a great king, improves the laws of Rotari.
	756	Desiderius becomes King of the Lombards.
	774	The kingdom of the Lombards comes to an end.
The Carlings (774-888).	780	Charles comes to Italy for the third time and has his son Pipin crowned King of Italy.
	800	Charles the Great crowned Emperor by Leo III.
	810	The government of Venice is fixed at the Rialto.
	814	Charles the Great dies.
	817	Lewis the Pious divides the Empire between his sons.
	827	The Saracens begin to invade Italy.
	843	The Treaty of Verdun divides the Empire.
	888	Charles the Fat is deposed and dies after uniting the Carling dominions in his person
Italian and Burgundian Kings (888-961).	888	Berengarius King of Italy.
	894	Arnulf comes to Italy.
	898	Hungarians invade Italy.
	932	Marozia mistress of Rome.
	950	Berengarius II. King of Italy.
	961	Otto invited into Italy by Pope John XII.
Saxon Kings (961-1024).	962	Otto of Saxony crowned Emperor in Rome.
	973	Otto I. dies, succeeded by Otto II.
	983	Otto III. succeeds. Crescentius master of Rome.
	996	Otto III. comes to Rome, conquers Crescentius, makes Gregory V. Pope, who crowns him Emperor.
	998	Gerbert, Otto's tutor, made Pope as Silvester II.
	1002	Otto III. dies.
	1013	Henry II. crowned Emperor.
	1016	Normans come to South Italy.
Franconian Kings (1024-1125).	1027	Conrad of Franconia crowned Emperor at Rome.
	1039	Henry III. succeeds Conrad.
	1056	Henry III. dies, leaving a young son, Henry IV.
	1073	Hildebrand elected Pope as Gregory VII.
	1077	Henry IV. goes to Canossa.
	1084	Robert Guiscard burns Rome.
	1085	Gregory VII. dies.
	1115	Countess Matilda of Tuscany dies, leaving her dominions to the Pope.
Swabian Kings (1125-1268).	1125	Frederick of Hohenstaufen, heir to Henry V. Guelfs and Ghibellines.
	1127	Conrad, brother of Frederick, crowned King of Italy.
	1152	Frederick Barbarossa elected King of Germany
	1162	Frederick destroys Milan.
	1176	Frederick vanquished at Legnano.
	1183	Peace of Constance.
	1190	Frederick takes part in the Third Crusade and is drowned in the river Sele.
	1191	Henry VI. crowned Emperor. Conquers Sicily from the Normans.
	1197	Frederick II. succeeds as a child, and is ward of Pope Innocent III.
	1216	Innocent III. dies. Franciscans and Dominicans come into existence.
	1220	Frederick crowned Emperor by Honorius III.
	1227	Frederick goes on the Crusade, but is excommunicated by Gregory XII.
	1250	Frederick dies.
	1258	Manfred crowned King of Sicily at Palermo.
	1266	Manfred killed in the battle of Benevento. Dante born, 1265.
	1268	Conradin defeated at Scurgola and executed at Naples.
The Signories (1268-1395).	1273	Rudolph of Hapsburg elected Emperor
	1282	Sicilian Vespers.
	1285	Death of Charles of Anjou.
	1289	Battle of Campaldino.
	1293	Gino della Bella passes Ordinances of Justice
	1297	The closing of the Great Council of Venice.
	1300	Jubilee of Pope Boniface VIII.
	1310	Henry of Luxemburg crowned King and Emperor.
	1314-26	Cangrande della Scala Lord of Verona, Matteo Visconti of Milan, Uguccione della Faggiuola and Castruccio Castracane in Tuscany.
	1341	Walter of Brienne, Duke of Athens, becomes Lord of Florence.
	1345	Joanna of Naples kills her husband, Andrew of Hungary. [tries to form a republic.
	1347	The Popes being at Avignon and Rome distracted by the quarrels of the Colonna and Orsini, Cola di Rienzo
	1355	Execution of Marino Faliero.
	1377-83	War of Chioggia ended by the Peace of Turin. Riot of the Ciompi at Florence. The Pope returns to Rome, but there is a papal schism.
Principalities (1395-1492).	1395	The Emperor Wenzel establishes the Duchy of Milan.
	1396	The Republic of Genoa becomes French.
	1397-1402	The flourishing period of Gian Galeazzo Visconti, Duke of Milan.
	1412	Sicily becomes Spanish.
	1431-33	The Medici powerful in Florence. Cosimo de' Medici banished by the Albizzi.
	1436	The Council of Basel transferred to Ferrara and then to Florence.
	1440	Peace of Cremona.
	1453	Capture of Constantinople by the Turks.
	1454	Peace of Lodi.
	1459	Pope Pius II. proclaims a Crusade



## DATES OF ITALIAN HISTORY—*continued*

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
	1464	Cosimo de' Medici, Pater Patriæ, dies.
	1476	Galeazzo Sforza, Duke of Milan, murdered.
	1488	Catharine Cornaro, Queen of Cyprus, cedes the island to the Venetians.
	1492	Lorenzo de' Medici dies. Columbus discovers America.
Struggle for dominion between France and Spain (1492-1559).		Expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy. Savonarola executed. Machiavelli made Secretary of the Republic of Florence. Louis XII. of France attacks Lewis the Moor, Duke of Milan. Consalvo of Cordova. League of Cambrai. 1510 Pope Julius II. forms Holy League. Gaston de Foix. 1513 Leo X. succeeds Julius II. 1515 Francis I. of France conquers the Swiss at Battle of Marignano. 1519 Charles V. of Spain becomes Emperor. 1523 Clement VII., a Medici, succeeds Hadrian VI. as Pope. 1526-28 League of Cognac, called the Holy League. Sack of Rome by Constable Bourbon. 1530 Siege and fall of Florence. 1540 Ignatius Loyola founds Jesuits to combat Luther. 1542 Council of Trent. 1547 Conspiracy of Fiesco in Genoa. [brother Ferdinand. 1550 Charles V. abdicates the Crown of Spain in favour of his son Philip II., and the Empire in favour of his Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis.
Supremacy of Spain (1559-1700).	1563	Council of Trent closed.
	1582	Gregory XIII. reforms the Calendar.
	1600	Giordano Bruno burned in the Campo de' Fiori at Rome.
	1632	The Duchy of Urbino returns to the House of Rovere.
	1645	The Turks take Candia.
	1685	The Morea conquered by Venice.
	1697	Peace of Ryswick.
	1699	Peace of Carlowitz.
Supremacy of Austrians and Bourbons (1700-80).	1700	War of Spanish Succession.
	1706	Battle of Turin.
	1707	Charles III., King of Naples.
	1713	Treaty of Utrecht.
	1718	Venice loses Morea to Turks.
	1720	Victor Amadeus becomes King of Sardinia instead of Sicily.
	1724	Emperor Charles VI. publishes Pragmatic Sanction.
	1740	War of Austrian Succession.
	1744	Battle of Vellettri.
	1748	Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
	1749	Reforms of Charles III. and Tanucci at Naples.
	1753	Paoli appears as Liberator in Corsica.
	1759	Charles III. leaves Naples for Spain.
	1767	Jesuits expelled from Naples and Parma, as well as from France, Spain and Portugal.
	1769	Corsica becomes French.
	1773	Pope Clement XIV. suppresses the Jesuits.
	1775	Pius VI. becomes Pope.
	1789	Outbreak of French Revolution.
French Domination (1789-1815).	1791	Victor Amadeus III. opposes the Revolution.
	1792	Savoy and Nice occupied by France.
	1796-97	Campaigns of Bonaparte in Italy.
	1798	Republic proclaimed in Rome.
	1799	Parthenopean Republic proclaimed in Naples.
	1800	Battle of Marengo. Pius VII. elected Pope.
	1802	Italian Republic formed.
	1805	Napoleon I. crowned King of Italy, having been crowned Emperor of the French in the previous year (1804).
	1806	Joseph Bonaparte, King of Naples. Ferdinand retiring to Sicily.
	1808	Murat becomes King of Naples, Joseph being removed to Spain.
	1811	Birth of Napoleon II., King of Rome.
	1814	Napoleon abdicates at Fontainebleau.
	1815	Napoleon defeated at Waterloo.
Struggles for Italian Unity (1815-70).	1815-20	Reaction throughout Italy. Revolution in the two Sicilies.
	1821	Austria intervenes.
	1822	Congress of Verona.
	1831	Disturbances in Rome and other parts of Italy suppressed by the Austrians.
	1832	Mazzini founds the Giovane Italia (Young Italy).
	1844	The insurrection of the Brothers Bandiera in Calabria.
	1846	Pius IX. elected Pope. Proclaims a political amnesty.
	1848	The year of revolutions.
	1849	Charles Albert, conquered at Novara, abdicates in favour of Victor Emmanuel and dies at Oporto.
	1850	Pius IX. returns to Rome. Austrians crush liberty.
	1852	Cavour Prime Minister.
	1855	Sardinia takes part in the Crimean War.
	1856	Congress of Paris.
	1858	Interview of Plombières.
	1859	Battles of Magenta and Solferino and Peace of Villafranca.
	1860	Garibaldi lands at Marsala, conquers Sicily and Naples. By plebiscite, Umbria, the Marches, Naples and Sicily join the kingdom of Victor Emmanuel.
	1861	The first Italian Parliament meets at Turin. Cavour dies, June 6th.
	1864	Capital removed from Turin to Florence.
	1866	Venetia gained for Italy.
	1867	Garibaldi defeated at Mentana.
	1870	The Italians enter Rome on September 20th.
New Italy (1870-1915).	1871	Rome made the capital of Italy.
	1878	Victor Emmanuel and Pius IX. die.
	1882	Garibaldi dies at Caprera, June 2nd.
	1883	Earthquake at Casamicciola.
	1890	Foundation of Eritrea.
	1896	Defeat at Adowa.
	1900	King Humbert assassinated at Monza, July 29th.
	1908	Earthquake at Messina, December 28th.
	1911	Landing at Tobruk in Tripoli.
	1912	Peace of Lausanne, October 15th.
	1915	Earthquake in the Abruzzi, January 13th.

## CHAPTER XXVII

THE ITALIANS. By OSCAR BROWNING, M.A.

ANCIENT history and the Roman Empire of the West are supposed to come to an end with the deposition of the boy Romulus Augustulus, whose very name is a caricature, in 476 A.D., and medieval history, including that of Italy as distinguished from the history of Rome, to begin in the same year, with the recognition of Odoacer as Patrician by the Emperor of Byzantium. Other dates, both earlier and later, might be chosen, and it is difficult to determine when the history of Italy should be finally severed from that of Rome. No doubt the change was wrought by what is called the Invasion of the Roman polity and civilization was a great misfortune, we must admit that the development of the new governments, founded on the ruins of the old, worked out eventually for the advantage of mankind.

A great epoch in the history of the world was, undoubtedly, marked by the crossing of the Volga by the Huns in 375. They were a hideous people, riding on horses as ugly as themselves. They knew no culture of the land, no home or hearth, no law or government; they seemed to follow the impulse of the moment. At the same time, they were very fond of money. They first attacked the Alans, and then,

the Barbarians, an inaccurate and misleading phrase. The infiltration of Germans, Slavs and Mongols into the Empire formed by the Latins of the West and the Greeks of the East was a gradual process rather than an invasion, and the invaders were not all Barbarians, as many of them possessed finer qualities than those whom they conquered.

Although the destruction



THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.

The united Kingdom of Italy dates from the latter half of the nineteenth century. During this period the northern provinces were wrested from Austria, the kingdom of the two Sicilies was overthrown and also the temporal power of the Pope by the seizure of the Papal States.

with their help, subdued the Ostrogoths, and drove them against the Visigoths, who swarmed over the Balkan peninsula, defeated and killed the Emperor Valens at Adrianople, which they captured, and then crossed the Julian Alps. They were eventually subdued and pacified by the great Emperor Theodosius, the friend of the sainted Ambrose. He died at Milan in 395, and before his death divided his empire into two sections of East and West, giving the East to Arcadius and the West to Honorius, a child of eleven years old. From this time the two divisions of the Empire followed independent destinies.

Alaric, King of the Visigoths, for reasons which do not concern us, attacked Northern Italy in 402, conquered Istria and Venetia, besieged Aquileia, and laid waste the Veronese with fire and sword, and advancing southwards nearly reached Rome. His raid was imitated by a number of German tribes, Vandals, Burgundians and Sueves, who followed his footsteps. Alaric eventually besieged Rome in 408, but was bought

first devastated the Eastern Empire, and then turned his attention to Germany and France, and was defeated at Châlons. Recovered from this disaster, he crossed the Julian Alps and destroyed Aquileia, whose inhabitants took refuge in the neighbouring lagoons, establishing settlements which afterwards gave birth to Venice. He then marched upon Padua, Verona and Bergamo, and in 453 was on the point of destroying Rome, but was deterred by the prayers of Pope Leo the Great. The popes were now the rulers of Rome. Terrified by the invasion of Alaric, Honorius had deserted the Palatine and removed his residence to Ravenna, defended by its remoteness and its marshes. In 455 Rome was



*From the painting]*

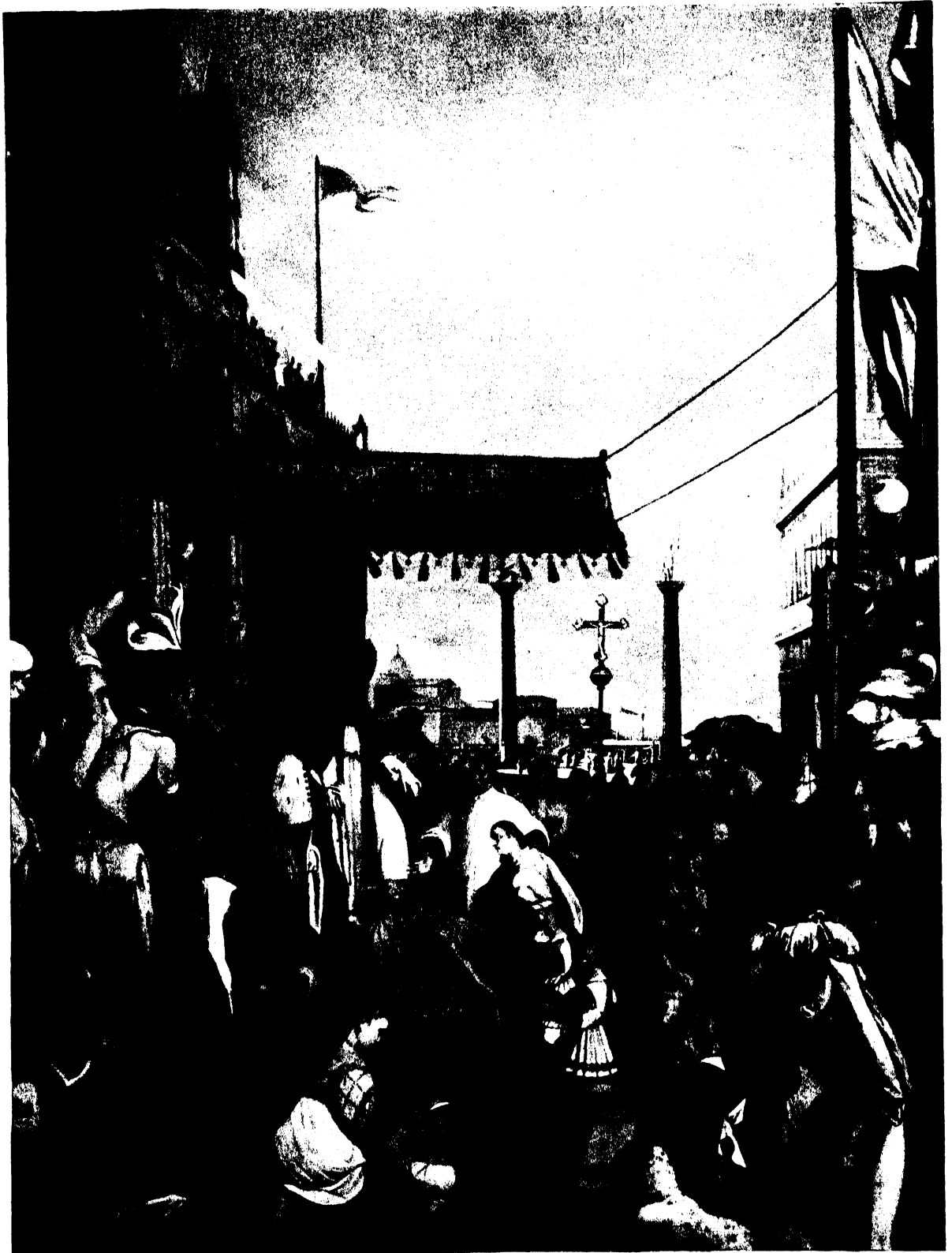
*[By J. R. Herbert, R.A.]*

#### ISTRIAN PIRATES CARRYING OFF VENETIAN BRIDES.

The peninsula of Istria was inhabited by fierce tribes whose subjugation was a matter of extreme difficulty owing to the rocky nature of their coasts. About 800 A.D. the Istrians were pirates, and are here seen making a sudden descent upon Venice.

off by the payment of a large amount of gold and silver, and the surrender of many German slaves. "What have you left us?" said the Romans. "Your lives," replied the conqueror. Two years later, in August, 410, he conquered Rome again, and plundered it of every kind of wealth, the orgy of the sack lasting for three days and three nights.

In 444 the Huns made a further inroad, under the guidance of the great Attila. He



*From the painting]*

*[By F. Zuccari.*

#### POPE ALEXANDER III. RECEIVING FREDERICK BARBAROSSA

Frederick Barbarossa and his army having been utterly overwhelmed by the Lombards at Legnano, the Emperor opened negotiations with Venice and Pope Alexander III., to whom he offered to make atonement. The solemn act of submission was made at Venice, where Frederick, having sworn fidelity to the Holy See, knelt before Alexander in recognition of his spiritual supremacy. Though the act may seem to have been humiliating, in its results it was not unfavourable to the secular affairs of the empire



From the painting]

EZZELINO DA ROMANO IN PRISON AT SONCINO.

[By C. F. Lessing.

Ezzelino da Romano, a Ghibelline leader, universally hated for his tyranny and cruelty, was wounded at the battle of Cassano and taken prisoner to Soncino by his enemies in 1259. Enraged at his capture, Ezzelino, after twelve days' captivity, tore the bandages from his wounds and, refusing all food, died.

never forgiven him for having compelled her at a banquet to drink wine out of her father's skull, which he had fashioned into a cup. His successor, Cleph, was assassinated after a reign of eighteen months, and there ensued an interregnum of ten years. This gave opportunity for the rise of a number of dukedoms—thirty or thirty-six—mainly in Northern Italy. In 584 Autari, son of Cleph, restored the power of the monarchy, and, himself an Arian, married the Catholic Theudelinda, daughter of Duke Garibald of Bavaria, who has left an illustrious name in Italian history. After the death of Autari she reigned as the wife of his successor Agilulf, Duke of Turin, and as the mother of her son Adalwald. Closely allied

with Gregory the Great, the converter of England, she brought over the Bavarians from the Arian to the Catholic belief; she built the cathedral of Monza, where the kings of Italy were long crowned with the Iron Crown, which contains within its golden circle a nail of the true cross. This precious relic is still preserved in the sacristy, together with the queen's gold-handled comb, and a silver-gilt hen and chickens, which once probably formed a centrepiece at her banquets. She died on the Lake of Como, and built the road which still makes its precipices accessible.

In 636, Rotari, Duke of Brescia, who married the daughter of Theudelinda, was elected King of the Lombards, and is known as the first great lawgiver of that nation. We now find the duchies of Spoleto and Benevento coming into prominence by the side of the northern duchies, which is emphasized by the quarrel between Grimwald of Benevento, who was King of the Lombards, and Perctarit of Milan. The son of Grimwald was called Garibald. He had a peaceful reign, and was devoted to the interests of the Roman Church. Luitprand, perhaps the greatest of the Lombard kings, came to the throne in 712, and reigned till 744. He was a man of great strength and courage, with gifts of statesmanship which he displayed in every part of Europe. He came very near to founding a kingdom of Italy, but his work failed because he had no son to succeed him. As a lawgiver he completed the work of Rotari. He took advantage of the rebellion of the southern provinces of Italy against the Byzantine Emperor Leo the Isaurian, who forbade the worship of images in Christian churches, to make conquests in the Exarchate of Ravenna and in the duchy of Rome. The popes opposed him, fearing the growth of Lombard power, and stirred up the Venetians against him, who had now constituted themselves under a Doge, as well as the Dukes of Spoleto and Benevento, of whom Luitprand was able to give a good account. They then turned to Charles Martel, the mayor of the Frankish palace and progenitor of the Carlings, who had gained immortal fame by the defeat of the Saracens at Poitiers in 732. It was he who gave to the popes

a grant which laid the foundation of their temporal power. Luitprand always pursued a moderating course, and his interview with Pope Zachary at Pavia was the last public act of his career. The chief aim of his life was the consolidation of the Lombard monarchy and the subjection of the great dukes to the authority of the crown.

The practice of the popes in calling in the aid of France for the protection of their power, which has continued almost to our own times, was followed by Stephen II., who summoned Pipin of France to assist him against Astulph, who had conquered the Exarchate and was attacking the Duchy of Rome. The result of this was the famous donation, which is regarded by the popes as their main title to their temporalities. The last King of the Lombards was Desiderius, who found an opponent in Charles the Great, who, as the ally of Pope Hadrian, defeated Desiderius at Pavia and his son Adelchis at Verona, and brought the kingdom of the Lombards to an end in 774.

After the fall of the Lombard kingdom, Italy may be considered as divided into five parts, the territory of the Franks in the north, the Papal possessions in the centre, the republic of Venice, the Lombard dukedom of Benevento, and the fragments of the Byzantine Empire. Under the strong will and vigorous policy of Charles the Great the country took a new shape. He visited Italy five times, each time leaving it stronger than he had found it. On the first occasion he brought the Lombard kingdom to an end; on the second, he suppressed a rebellion of the Lombard dukes, abolished their titles and jurisdiction, placing counts and marquises in their places, who held their offices on the feudal basis of loyalty to the emperor, and the performance of military service conditional on the holding of land. In a third



*From the painting]*

*[By U. Sabatelli*

## THE BATTLE OF MONTAPERTI, 1260.

This battle was fought during the wars between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines. A Sienese army reinforced by Florentine exiles, including Farinata degli Uberti and other Ghibellines, met and routed the forces of the Florentines, who were assisted by Guelphs of other towns, at Montaperti in 1260

expedition, in 780, he had his son Pipin consecrated King by the Pope ; in a fourth, he subdued Arichis, the Lombard Duke of Benevento, and made him a vassal of the Empire. But the crown of his visits was on Christmas Day, 800, a date memorable in the history of the world. St. Peter's was full of a great crowd, come together to celebrate the festival—papal prelates with Roman and Frankish nobles. Charles was standing in prayer before the confession of St. Peter, when Pope Leo III. suddenly placed a crown of gold on the king's head. On this the Romans present cried out with deep accordant voice : " To Charles, most pious and august, crowned by God, great and peace-bringing emperor, be life and victory." After this the people sang hymns of praise ; the Pope fell on his knees and adored the new emperor, and



*From the painting]*

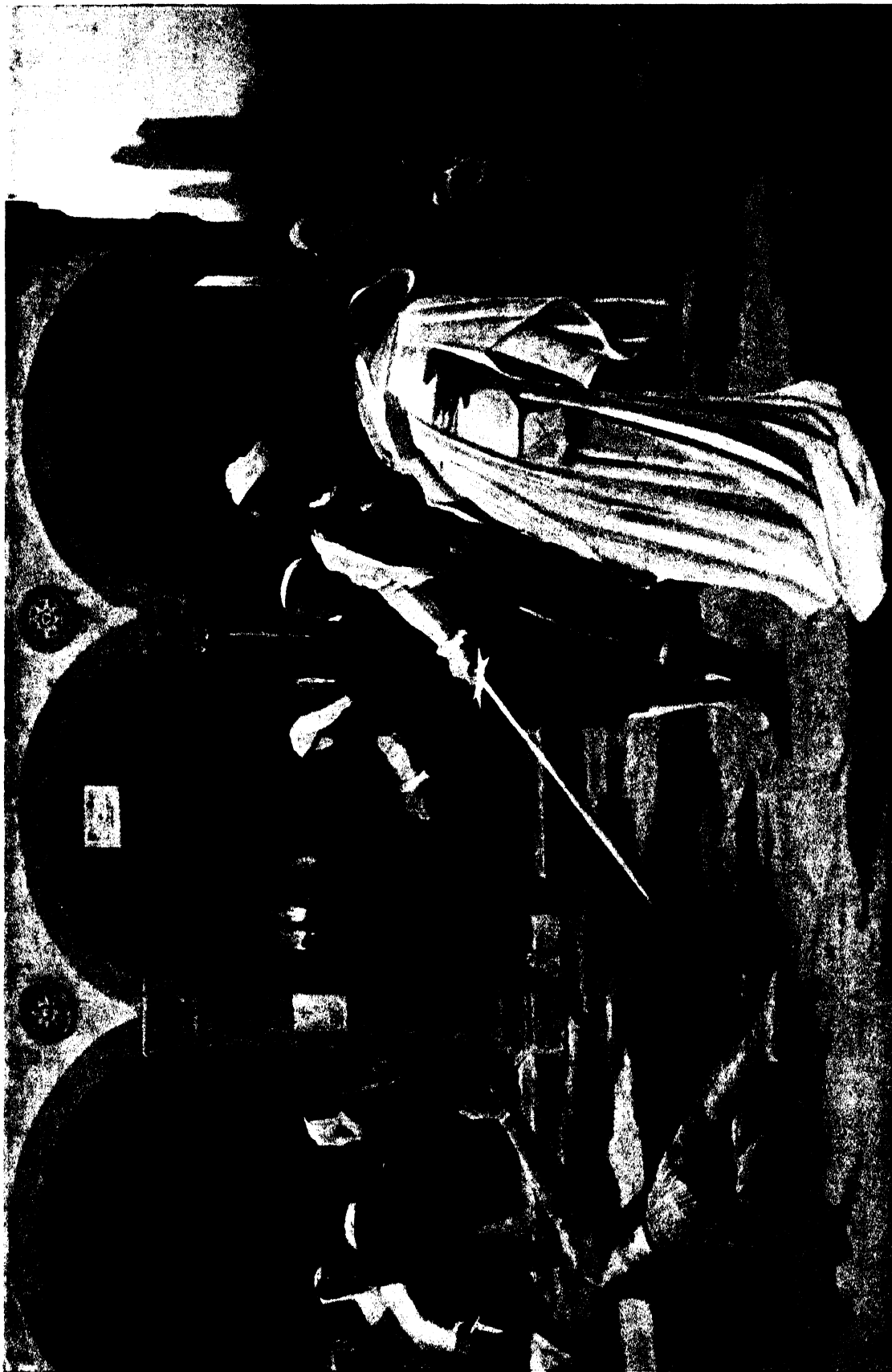
*[By Eduard von Engerth.*

#### THE CAPTURE OF KING MANFRED'S FAMILY

Following the overthrow of Manfred of Sicily at the battle of Benevento in 1266, his family was captured by Charles of Anjou. Charles redeemed his captive son by giving to Pedro of Aragon Manfred's daughter Beatrice, who thus escaped the terrible fate of her mother and brothers. Queen Helena died in prison in 1271, and her sons were kept in solitary confinement for thirty-one years.

consecrated and crowned his eldest son. By this act the Holy Roman Empire was established in Europe. This creation of the Empire of the West was a wise and statesmanlike proceeding ; it gave the sanction of law to fact ; it consolidated the forces of progress and civilization ; it raised a fabric which deserved and obtained the reverence of the world, and after lasting a thousand years, having done its work and become useless and even noxious, was destroyed by a greater sovereign than he who called it into existence.

Charles lived for fourteen years after this, his son Pipin, King of Italy, having died before him. In 813, the year before his death, he recognized his one remaining son Lewis, generally known as Lewis the Pious, as Emperor, giving the kingdom of Italy to Bernard, son of Pipin, a claim which he was unable to enforce. In 817 Lewis divided the Empire between his sons, Lothar, Pipin and Lewis, associating



*From the painting*

#### MASSACRE OF THE FRENCH AT PALERMO, 1282

The revolt of the Sicilians against the Angevin rule was occasioned by the cruel and oppressive government of Charles I. of Anjou. The French were detested in the island, and only the least provocation was needed for a general outburst. On 31st March, 1282, a French soldier insulted a Sicilian bride in church at Palermo. Immediately a riot broke out and a general massacre began, which spread throughout the island. Thousands of French, men, women and children, were butchered.

*[By L. Biechi.]*





*From the painting]*

#### DANTE PRESENTING GIOTTO TO THE SIGNOR OF RAVENNA.

*[By G. Mochi.]*

Whilst staying at Ravenna with the great poet Dante, between 1317 and 1320, Giotto received a commission to paint the frescoes of S. Giovanni Evangelista. In the picture here seen he appears to have brought a book of his drawings to the Signor of Ravenna in the hope of finding work for his genius.

with him in the Empire the eldest Lothar, who became King of Italy, and was crowned at Rome by Pope Pascal in 823. Passing over the distressing family quarrels which occupied the last years of Lewis till his death in 840, we come to the Treaty of Verdun in 843, by which the Empire was finally divided into three parts. Lothar took Italy and a long strip of territory stretching from the mouth of the Rhine to the south of France, afterwards called Lorraine, together with the title of Emperor; to Lewis was assigned almost the whole of what is now known as Germany, and to Charles the Bald what is now known as France, together with the Spanish March. Thus were created France and Germany, to contend against each other as enemies, and a middle kingdom, which should be coveted by, and alternately belong to, both. If Lewis had left two sons instead of three the destiny of the world might have been different.

Italy was in great disorder, not only from these domestic quarrels, but from the invasions of the Saracens, who now began to harry her coasts. Mahomet had now been dead for nearly two hundred years, but his followers, having conquered large portions of Asia and North Africa, crossed over into Spain, and harried with their piracies the whole basin of the Mediterranean. Called into Sicily by Eufemio of Messina, who had rebelled against the Emperor, they conquered the island, and made it a starting-place for the subjection of Sardinia and Corsica. At this time the Principality of Benevento had developed two offshoots—the Principality of Salerno and the County of Capua, while the Dukedom of Naples, throwing off the sovereignty of Byzantium, had developed a Dukedom of Gaeta and a free city of Amalfi. The princes of Salerno and Amalfi, at war with each other, called in the assistance of the Arabs of Sicily and Spain. They took possession of Bari, sacked Taranto, and even penetrated to Rome, where they became masters of the basilicas of St. Peter and St. Paul, and ravaged the coasts of the

Italian kingdom. About this time (850) Lewis II., son of Lothar, was crowned Emperor at Rome, and five years later, on his father's death, he obtained the title of Emperor and the dominion of Italy. During his short reign he worked hard to rescue Italy from the Saracens and to establish the power of the Emperor in that country ; but although he succeeded in getting possession of Bari, he was taken prisoner by the Prince of Benevento. On his death, without sons, Charles the Bald, King of France, was crowned Emperor by the Pope at Rome, and was acclaimed King of Italy at Pavia. After his death in 877, Charles the Fat, son of Lewis the German, was recognized as King of Italy and crowned Emperor at Rome. He united in his unwieldy person all the dominions of the Carling house, but after a year's trial was deposed for incapacity and died.

The history of Italy for the next seventy years, from the death of Charles the Fat to the coming of the great Otto, was a period of confusion. Berengario, Duke of Fiesole, a connection of the Carling house, was made King of Italy ; but he found a rival in Guido, Duke of Spoleto, who defeated him, and was crowned King of Italy at Pavia and Emperor at Rome. At the same time the Prince of Benevento disputed with the Byzantines the possession of Bari. Guido, crowned by Pope Stephen V., associated his son Lambert with him in the Empire, while the Byzantines stormed Benevento and attacked Salerno and Capua, but were repulsed. In 894, Arnulf of Carinthia, nephew of Charles the Fat, came down into Italy at the invitation of the Pope and Berengario, and on the death of Guido was crowned Emperor at Rome. When he returned to Germany, Berengario and Lambert of Spoleto divided the kingdom of Italy between them ; but on the death of Arnulf and Lambert, Berengarius remained undisputed king. His reign was rendered calamitous by an invasion of the Hungarians. Having made a raid as far as the Brenta in 898, they returned the next year in greater force. Berengarius opposed them with an army of fifteen thousand men encamped upon the Adda. The Hungarians sued for peace, offering to surrender their booty and return to Pannonia. When this was refused, they retreated to the Brenta and repeated the offer, which was again rejected. They consequently attacked the Italian camp and captured it with great slaughter. They did not return to Pannonia until they had overrun the Lombard plain as far as the Western



*From the painting]*

*[By Sir Charles Eastlake, R.A.]*

## THE ESCAPE OF FRANCESCO NOVELLO DI CARRARA.

Following his father's capture during the feudal war with Gian Visconti, Francesco Novello held out at Padua until forced to surrender by internal dissensions. He was deprived of his dominions by Visconti, but received a castle as Asti. He escaped, however, to France and renewed the struggle again in 1390. The Carrara family possessed great influence at Padua during the fourteenth century.

Alps, sacked Modena and Reggio, and killed the Bishop of Vercelli. The defeat of the Brenta ruined the reputation of Berengarius. The nobles of the north rose against him, and put forward Lewis of Provence as his rival, who was crowned King of Pavia and Emperor at Rome; but Berengarius succeeded in conquering him, putting out his eyes, and sending him back to Provence. In Rome the papacy had reached its lowest point. A powerful family, represented by Theophylact, keeper of the papal wardrobe, his wife Theodora, and his daughters, Marozia and Theodora, had made itself master of Rome and retained its authority for sixty years. Pope Sergius III., who had obtained his position by murder, formed a close alliance with Theophylact and his family, made love to Marozia, and had a son by her who afterwards became pope under the name of John XI. Full of foul passions which ought to have secured his fall, he succeeded in keeping his place for seven years and died



*From the painting]*

*[By Stefano Ussi.*

#### WALTER DE BRIENNE DRIVEN FROM FLORENCE, 1343.

Walter de Brienne, Duke of Athens, was elected by the Florentines in 1342 to govern their city. De Brienne began his rule well, but soon made himself hated by his oppressive taxes and ferocious cruelty towards those who opposed him. The citizens rose in arms and besieged the duke in his palace. After forcing de Brienne to abdicate, they expelled him from Florence in 1343.

a natural death. After the succession of two obscure popes, John X. wore the tiara for fourteen years, as a devoted servant of the dominant family. He signalized his papacy by driving the Saracens out of Italy. As a reward for the assistance which he gave him, Berengarius was crowned Emperor at Rome in 915. Nine years afterwards he was treacherously assassinated while praying in a church at Verona. He left a great name, but did not succeed in founding lasting power, as he had neither the strength nor the wisdom of the princes of Spoleto.

After the death of Berengarius, the stage is occupied by the rivalry between Rudolf of Burgundy, who had been called in to oppose Berengarius, and Hugh of Provence. Rudolf was defeated and driven back to his own country, while Hugh was crowned King of Italy at Pavia. He then went to Rome, where he married the famous Marozia, who had just invested her son with the papal tiara, under the title of John XI. Marozia had a legitimate son, Alberic, who acted as Hugh's page. Hugh once boxed the lad's



*From the painting]*

#### THE EXECUTION OF THE DOGE FALIERO.

*[By F. Delacroix.*

Marino Faliero, a member of one of the oldest and most illustrious Venetian families, was elected Doge of Venice in 1354. His reign began and ended in disaster. The Venetian fleet was completely defeated by the Genoese at Sapienza soon after his election, while plague and a decline in commerce aggravated the situation. Faliero developed an ambition which led him to plot the death of the chief patricians and get himself proclaimed Prince of Venice. But the conspiracy miscarried, and Faliero's complicity being discovered he was executed in 1355.



*From the painting]*

A RELIGIOUS PROCESSION IN ST. MARK'S PLACE, VENICE.

*[By Gentile Bellini.*

The remains of St. Mark are said to have been brought from the church of their burial at Alexandria about 828, on its destruction by the Moslems. They were placed in a small wooden church on the site of which the magnificent Basilica of St. Mark now stands. The picture represents a procession of relics before the Cathedral.

ears for some carelessness in serving, upon which Alberic rushed into the street, called the populace together and upbraided them for obeying a woman and a man who had once been a Royal slave. He stirred their passions by recalling the ancient splendour of Rome and the testimony of their monuments. The bell sounded the alarm, the people ran to arms, barricaded the gates, and assaulted the Castle of St. Angelo. Hugh ran away to Lombardy, the city was free and jubilant, having at one blow got rid of the monarchy, the empire, the dominion of the pope, and achieved municipal independence. Alberic was made prince and senator of the Romans, threw his mother into prison, and shut up his brother, John XI., in the Lateran. For twenty-two years he governed Rome as an absolute prince.

Hugh of Provence returned to Italy in 938, but he was opposed by a second Berengarius, Marquis of Ivrea and nephew of the first. He was assisted by Otto, the son of Henry the Fowler, who became one of the greatest of the western Emperors. He eventually succeeded in being crowned King of Italy, but when Lothar, the son of Hugh of Provence, died in 950, a change took place. Lothar left a young widow, Adelaide, a woman of strong character, vigorous enough to understand and to defend her rights, surrounded by advisers who believed her to be the rightful heir to the throne. Otto was a man of noble spirit and lofty ambition, with a high conception of his office and a strong sense of duty. He saw France governed by the dregs of the Carling race, Burgundy no longer French, Italy torn by factions, and felt that he alone could defend civilization and religion against the attack of the Magyars, the Slavs and the Danes. Therefore, in September, 951, he crossed the Brenner Pass, assumed the crown of Italy at Pavia and married Adelaide.

It was not till ten years later that Otto of Saxony, King of Germany and Italy, received the imperial crown at Rome. The reign of the three Ottos forms one of the most interesting and picturesque portions of the history of Italy; but space will not allow us to do justice to their careers. The policy of Otto I. was to depress the nobles and increase the power of the clergy, raising bishops to the rank of counts, and giving them temporal authority. He conquered the Byzantines in Apulia, and forced Zimisces, Emperor of the East, to give to his son Otto the hand of his daughter Theophano. The second Otto spent much of his time in Germany, and when he came to Italy was not strong enough to repress the disorders which arose from the rising of the people against the bishop-counts, the struggles of the nobles between themselves, the turmoil of the papacy, and the wars of Byzantines and Saracens in the south. After a reign of ten years he died at Rome, the shadow rather than the substance of a sovereign, leaving a child of three years old to succeed him, with a mother of genius to guide him. During the minority of Otto III.

the power of the bishops increased, and the government of Rome passed into the hands of Crescentius, who assumed the title of Patrician of the Romans, the Pope becoming merely an instrument in his hands and Theophano acquiescing in his authority. The dominion of the Byzantines increased in the south, and they established a Catapan at Bari. In 996, Otto III. came to Rome, got his cousin, Bruno of Carinthia, elected Pope, and a fortnight later was crowned in St. Peter's, and assumed the title of Emperor, Patrician and Advocate of the Church. The world now saw two fair-haired and beautiful boys, one sixteen, the other twenty-two—one the head of the Church, the other of the Empire, striving to reduce to order the seething mass of jealousies which afflicted the fairest country in Europe, to which they were both strangers by birth. Crescentius was deposed, but recovering his power after the departure of Otto, raised to the Papacy John the Calabrian, who had been tutor of Otto. Otto now returned to Rome, besieged Crescentius in the Castle of St. Angelo, and beheaded him on the battlements. Gregory V. died in February, 999, after which Otto devoted himself to pilgrimages, visiting Monte Cassino, and the sanctuary of St. Michael on Monte Gargano. He made the illustrious Gerbert, the wonder of the age in genius and learning, Pope, with the title of Sylvester II. There was a widespread feeling at this time that the world would come to an end in the year one thousand, which diverted men's minds from this life to that beyond the grave. A tinge of sombre seriousness spread over society. Otto lived in a world of fancies; he aspired to be Emperor both of East and West, and also to be a Pope-emperor, which did not suit the views of the imperious Gerbert. In 1001 he paid a visit to Orseolus, Doge of Venice, who had added Dalmatia to the dominions of the republic. On his return, preparing to conquer Rome, he died of fever in January, 1002, the Phaeton of history, who tried to guide the chariot of the sun and perished in the attempt.

To the Saxon emperors succeeded the Franconian, the first of whom was Conrad. He was followed by



*From the painting]*

*[By A. Elmore, R.A.]*

## RIENZI IN THE FORUM, 1349

Cola di Rienzi, born in 1313, rose from humble circumstances to greatness. In 1347 the Roman citizens rose, drove the nobles and senators from power and proclaimed Rienzi dictator. But his enemies proving too strong, Rienzi, after seven months' rule, fled to Naples. While attempting to regain his power Rienzi was murdered in Rome in 1354.



From the painting]

[By A. Bronzino.

Giovanni de' Medici (1360-1429) was the actual founder of Medicean greatness. He took little part in political affairs, but realized an immense fortune in commerce.

history of Italy. He was a strong partisan of the principles of reform which originated in the monastery of Cluny, and he became conspicuous for severe discipline, ardent piety, energy of character and depth of learning. He determined to separate the clergy from the laity by insisting on clerical celibacy, and to liberate the popes from the authority of the Emperor. The Pope, the Vicar of Christ upon earth, was to reign over a hierarchy of priests, pure in life, strong in character and intellect, a leaven of society, to repress the lawlessness of self-indulgence which debased the world, and to exhibit a pattern of the Kingdom of Heaven upon earth. This gigantic plan, although it partially failed, has made the name of its designer famous throughout all ages. Unfortunately, his predecessor, Nicholas II., had

his son Henry III., who left his kingdom to a child, Henry IV. In his reign the conflict between the Empire and the Church, which had been simmering for many years, became very serious. The champion of the Church was Pope Gregory VII., better known as Hildebrand, one of the most powerful personalities in the

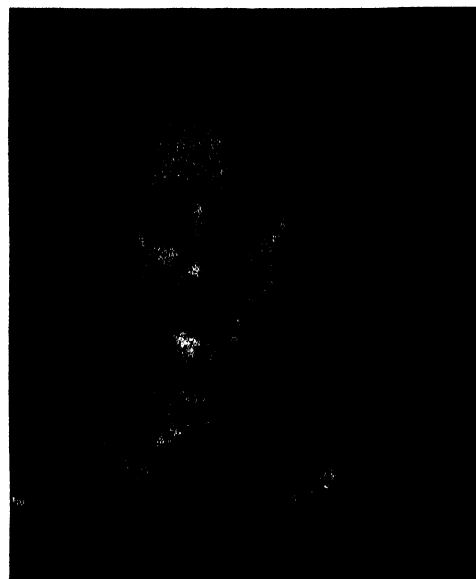


From the painting]

[By Vasari.

Lorenzo de' Medici (1448-1492) governed Florence justly but ill-advisedly. He was exceedingly cultured and extremely versatile, but ruthless towards all his enemies.

summoned the Normans to his aid, who had established themselves in Italy by a successful raid, and Robert Guiscard received the fiefs of Apulia and Calabria, and was promised the possession of Sicily, so soon as the Arabs and Greeks had been expelled. Hildebrand became Pope in 1073. Henry IV. was by this time a dissolute young man of twenty-three,



From the painting]

[By A. Bronzino.

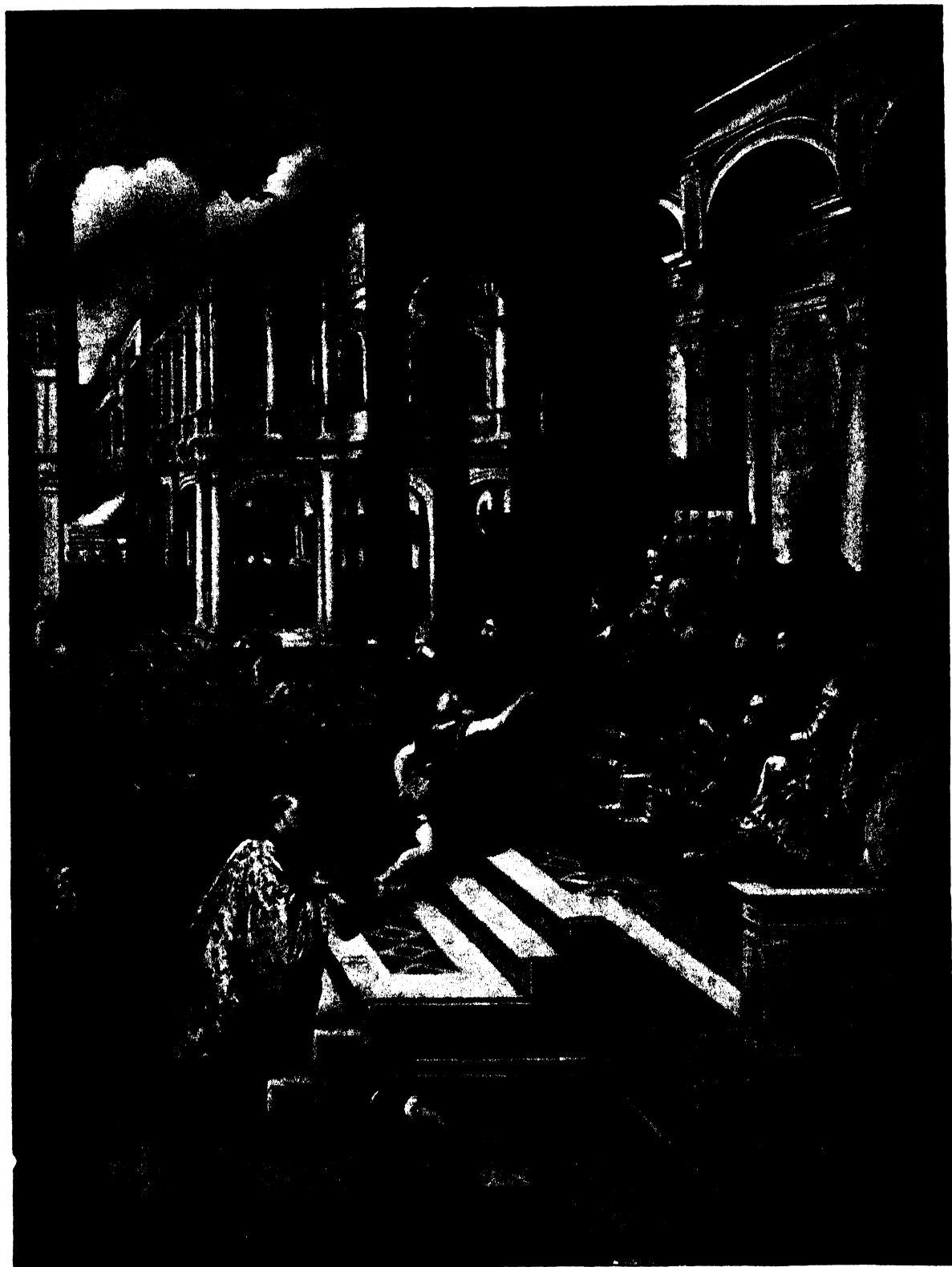
Cosimo de' Medici (1389-1464) raised himself to power by unscrupulous astuteness in financial matters. He was a patron of art and letters and founded the first free library.



From the painting]

[By S. Botticelli.

Giuliano de' Medici (1453-1478) was of a mild and yielding disposition. He ruled Florence jointly with his brother Lorenzo, and was assassinated while attending Mass.



[From the painting]

[By G. Bordone.]

#### THE PRESENTATION OF THE RING OF ST. MARK TO THE DOGE.

One of the chief duties of a doge was to celebrate the symbolic marriage of the Adriatic Sea to Venice in token of perpetual sovereignty. This ceremony was performed annually, amid great festivities, on Ascension Day, when the doge would sail out in the state galley—the Bucentaur, as it was called—and cast the ring of Saint Mark into the sea. The ring was in due time recovered by fishermen, and one of their number would present it to the doge.



and William the Conqueror, the only competent Christian ruler, gave his support to Hildebrand. A violent quarrel broke out between the Pope and Henry IV., which was decided in the Pope's favour, when in January, 1077, Henry had to stand for three days at the gate of the Castle of Canossa in the Apennines, in the garb of a penitent, until he was pardoned by the intercession of Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, to whom the castle belonged. At length he was admitted to the presence of Gregory, crying: "Pardon, pardon!"

The Franconian emperors were succeeded by the line of Hohenstaufen, one of the greatest of which was Frederick Barbarossa—that is, "Red-beard." His predecessor, Conrad, had been busy with Germany, and with the Second Crusade, and the municipalities of the north of Italy were at war with those in the south. Rome was again the prey of factions, and a republic had been established by the reforming



*From the painting]*

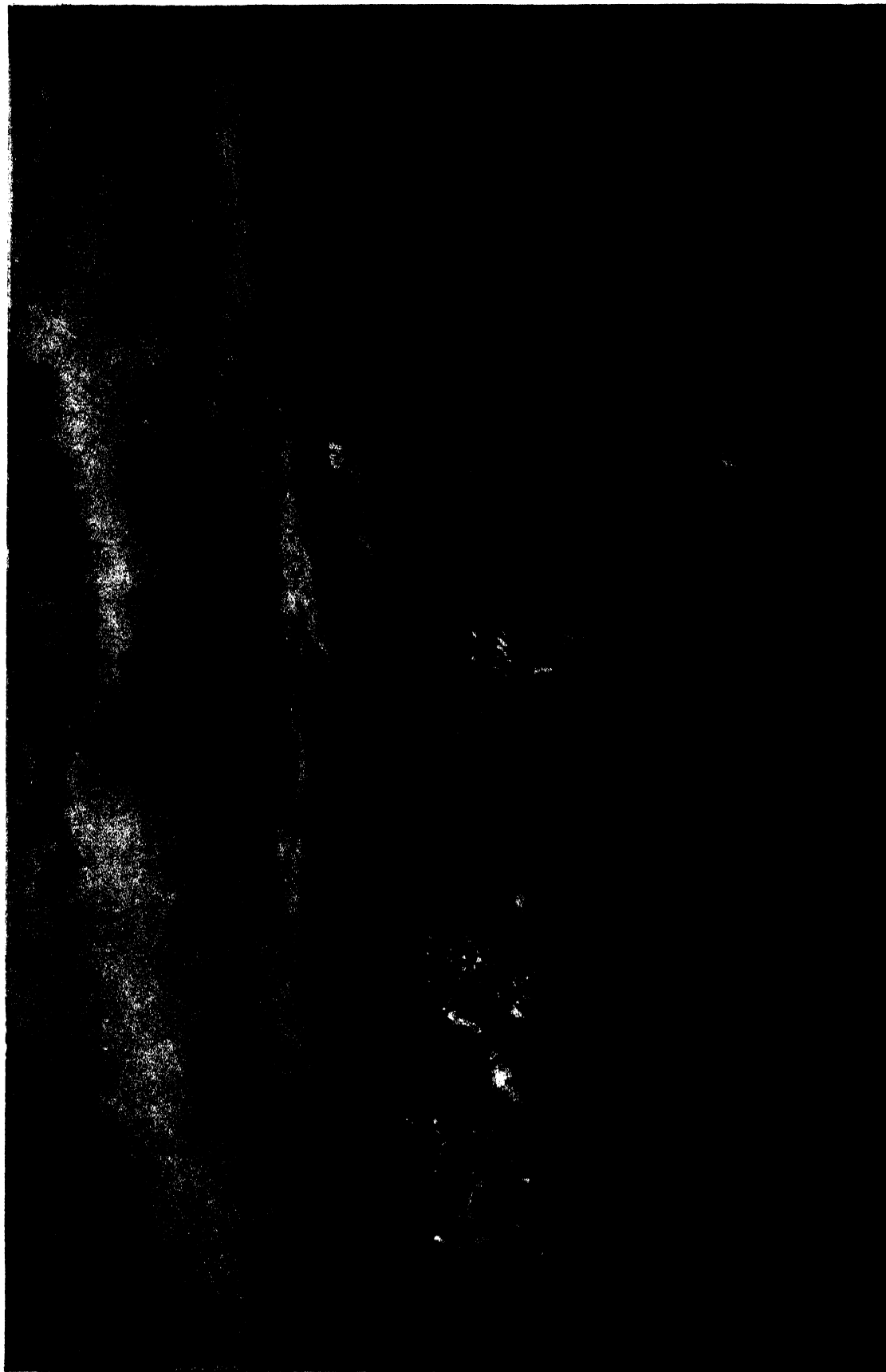
A PETITIONER BEFORE DOGE FOSCARI.

*[By F. Hayes.*

Francesco Foscari was elected Doge of Venice in 1423. Though a capable administrator, the state was plunged into a series of costly wars by his ambition and daring. In 1456 Foscari's son, Jacopo, was convicted of treason and banished for life, but died the following year. The doge, completely overwhelmed by grief, abdicated in 1457 and died shortly after.

monk, Arnold of Brescia, who desired to bring back the Church to its primitive simplicity, and to deprive it of temporal power. Frederick was invited by the Barons to repress these disorders, held a diet in the Roncalian Plain, was crowned king at Pavia and emperor at Rome, burned Arnold of Brescia, reduced Spoleto to obedience, and after two years returned to Germany, leaving behind him a strong impression of his vigour and determination. After his departure, the cities again asserted their liberties, so that he came back again, stormed Brescia, besieged and conquered Milan. In a second diet at Roncalia he recovered the ancient rights of the Empire, and destroyed the recalcitrant Milan altogether, turning it into a ploughed field. The communes of the north rebelled against this tyranny, and at the monastery of Pontida formed a Lombard League, which rebuilt Milan, and founded the city of Alessandria, taking the name of Pope Alexander III., who put himself at the head of the movement.

The Normans in the south took advantage of these disputes to establish their position in Naples and



From the painting by Sir John Gilbert.

By permission of the Trustees of the Victoria and Albert Museum.

#### THE RETURN OF IVAN THE TERRIBLE TO MOSCOW AFTER THE CONQUEST OF KAZAN.

In 1552 Ivan the Terrible, having raised and equipped a powerful army, commenced to besiege the rebellious Tatars. In the depth of winter Ivan led 150,000 men and 50 guns to the walls of Kazan and commenced to besiege it. The siege was long and costly, and the army, which suffered severely, was only kept in camp by the determination of Ivan. Although the Tatars heroically defended their city, Kazan was carried by assault on October 2nd.



Sicily, and the Republic of Venice became a powerful state. However, on May 29th, 1176, Frederick was defeated by the Lombard League at the battle of Legnano, and after becoming reconciled with the Pope at Venice, recognized the rights of the communes by the Peace of Constance. Northern Italy was now occupied by a number of self-governing republics, and Frederick, before his death in the Third Crusade, strengthened the Hohenstaufens by a marriage with the Normans of Sicily.

The cause of the Empire was now supported by Frederick, perhaps the greatest of his family, who succeeded as a child, having as his antagonist Innocent III., after Hildebrand, the greatest of the Popes. When Innocent died in 1216, he left the papacy at the zenith of its power, having completely subdued the authority of the Emperor, and trampled on most of the sovereigns of Europe, amongst them our own King John, who was compelled to resign his crown into his hands. Frederick was now able to assert



Photo by]

[B. P. C.

## POPE JULIUS II. AND THE APOLLO BELVEDERE.

Julius II. was pope from 1503 to 1513, and possessed a wonderfully forceful personality. He had a nice discrimination in art and inaugurated the collection of ancient statues in the Belvedere. One of the greatest discoveries of this pope was the famous Apollo Belvedere.

himself. He was crowned Emperor at Rome, and promised to undertake a crusade, a pledge which ruined the happiness of his life. However, with the energy of genius he drove the papal authorities out of Naples, made peace in Palestine between Christians and Mohammedans, conquered the Lombard League at Cortenuova, treated his excommunication with contempt, and captured the prelates who were on their way to a council in the Lateran. At length, saddened by the rebellion of his son Henry, the defeat and imprisonment of his beloved son Enzo, and his quarrel with his favourite minister, Pier delle Vigne, he died suddenly of fever in 1250, leaving an imperishable name as the wonder of the world.

Manfred, natural son of Frederick, now became regent on behalf of his nephew Conradin, whose father, Conrad, had died young. The Pope offered the kingdom of Sicily to Edmond, son of Henry II., upon which Manfred had himself crowned at Palermo. The struggle between Guelfs and Ghibellines became more acute. The Ghibellines of Florence, who had been driven out of their city after the death of

Frederick, now defeated the Guelfs at Montaperti and returned. The family of Della Torre became lords of Milan ; that of Della Scala, of Verona. Pope Urban I. offered the crown of Naples to Louis IX., the most worthy sovereign of his age, but he substituted his brother, Charles of Anjou, a man of very different character, who was crowned in Rome, King of Sicily and Apulia. Manfred was slain at the battle of Benevento. Just at this time Dante Alighieri, one of the three great poets of the modern world, was born at Florence. Conradin, the youthful son of Conrad, came into Italy to recover his rights, was defeated at Scurgola, took refuge with Frangipani at Astura, was sold by him to Charles, and was beheaded in the market-place at Naples, offering a challenge to the French, which was made effectual



*From the painting]*

#### SAVONAROLA PREACHING.

*[By Hamman.*

Girolamo Savonarola, born at Ferrara in 1452, entered the Dominican order in 1475. He gained an extraordinary ascendancy over Florentines of all classes by his sermons denouncing the profligacy and extravagance of the times. He excited the suspicion of the Medici, and being declared guilty of sedition in 1493 was strangled and burnt.

six hundred years later at Sedan. But vengeance came sooner than this. Conradin's glove thrown from the scaffold, was taken up by John of Procida, who was the author of what are called the " Sicilian Vespers." On Easter Monday, 1282, in consequence of an insult offered by a French soldier to a Sicilian girl, a cry of " Death to the French ! " was raised, and every Frenchman was killed, four thousand persons, men, women and children, perishing that night. The whole of Sicily was in revolt and Peter of Aragon was invited to assume the crown.

Let us consider what are the great events which happened in the lifetime of Dante, which give interest and vitality to the *Divine Comedy*. The Visconti became Lords of Milan, the Scaligers of Verona ; Rudolph of Hapsburg founded the line of emperors which still occupy the throne of Austria ; Genoa usurped the place of Pisa as a predominant sea-power. Charles of Anjou and Peter of Aragon passed away in the same year. William, the proud Marquis of Montferrat, died, imprisoned by the people of



*From the painting]*

#### A PETITIONER BEFORE THE DOGE.

*[By C. Becker.*

The office of Doge appears to have been instituted about 700, when it was conferred for life. In time, however, the Doges, who were drawn from the powerful class of Venetian traders, became hereditary despots. In ecclesiastical, civil and military matters they were supreme, and held the power of life and death over the citizens of the Republic. Out of the hall of the Ducal Palace the Doge and his family are ~~going~~ coming, whilst a suppliant with a child drops on her knees and holds out a petition in favour of her condemned husband.



From the painting]

#### VENICE DOING HOMAGE TO CATHERINE CORNARO.

In 1488 James II, succeeded to the throne of Cyprus by the help of the Venetians, who bestowed on him the hand of Catherine Cornaro, the daughter of a Venetian noble. Catherine thus became Queen of Cyprus, and was solemnly declared the adopted daughter of Venice and was received by the Republic as such.

[By Frans Hals.]

Alessandria in an iron cage. Count Ugolino was murdered by the citizens of Pisa, and condemned by Dante to freeze in a hell of eternal ice. Dante himself fought in the battle of Campaldino, where the Guelfs of Florence conquered the Ghibellines of Arezzo. The Ordinances of Justice, passed by Giano della Bella, gave a more democratic complexion to the government of Florence. Venice, on the other hand, by limiting the Great Council to members of certain families, formed itself into a close oligarchy. In Florence, the factions of the Whites and Blacks took the place of the Guelfs and Ghibellines; both were Guelfs, but the Blacks were the more violent partisans of the two. In 1300, the year in which the action of the *Divine Comedy* is placed, Pope Boniface VIII., whom Dante detested and condemned to hell, proclaimed a jubilee to the Christian world, and two years later Dante, a White Guelf, was driven from his beloved city by the Blacks to die in exile. Shortly afterwards the seat of the papacy was removed from Rome to Avignon, where it remained for seventy years. Henry of Luxembourg, whom Dante hoped would be the saviour of his country, was crowned King at Milan and Emperor at Rome; but at the poet's death, in 1321, the war between Princes and Lords, Guelf republics and Ghibelline republics, raged more ruthlessly than ever. His life set in failure, but his great poem survived, and at length helped to bring about the unity of Italy which he sought.

We now reach the age of the Condottieri, the leaders of mercenary armies, who fought for their own hand. The first of these was the Great Company, formed by Werner of Urslingen. Naples became subject to the worthless Joanna, who murdered her young husband, Andrew of Hungary. Rome, deserted both by Emperor and Pope, was desolated by

the rivalries of the Orsini and Colonna. This gave an opportunity for a great Italian patriot, Cola di Rienzo, to recall to the minds of his fellow-citizens the ancient glories of their past, and to establish a republic. His plan ended in disgrace and death, but his statue stands on the steps of the Capitol where he was slain, illumined by the verse of Carducci, and a noble avenue of the city keeps his memory green. At length the Popes returned to Rome, and the government of Italy assumed a more settled form. We find the six chief powers of Italy, which so long strove with each other for mastery, coming into the shape which men now living can remember. Under the Red Count, Amadeus VII., Savoy acquired Nice; the Visconti, to be followed by the Sforzas, enlarged the territory of Milan by the absorption of Verona and Padua. Venice was recognized as Queen of the Adriatic, after vanquishing her rival Genoa at the battle of Chioggia. Florence became more democratic after the riot of the Ciompi, and retained unimpaired her passionate love of liberty; while Naples was



Photo by]

[B. P. C.]

## LUCREZIA BORGIA DANCING BEFORE ALEXANDER VI.

Lucrezia Borgia (1480-1519) was the daughter of Cardinal Rodrigo Borgia. She was famous for her beauty and charm, but suffered from the evil influence of her brother Cesare. Lucrezia was married several times, but only to gratify her father's ambitious schemes. In 1501 she became Duchess of Ferrara, and devoted the remainder of her life to her children's welfare.

still torn asunder by civil war. Thus Italy was composed of five or six great powers, each striving after the mastership of the peninsula—Savoy, which eventually obtained it; Milan, which nearly did so; Venice, which was able to rank as a great European power; the Papacy, which under the Borgias found herself competing for the same prize; Tuscany, which loved liberty too well to desire dominion over others, until the Medici almost made it a monarchy, and the two Sicilies, whose quarrels and incapacity for rule never gave them a chance.

Milan was the first to assert herself. Gian Galeazzo Visconti bought the investiture of the Duchy from the Emperor Wenzel for a hundred thousand thousand florins. But he had many rivals, and the duchy was divided at his death. Genoa became the property of the King of France. Savoy was created a dukedom by the Emperor Sigismund, under Amadeo VIII., who added Piedmont to his dominions, the nucleus of modern Italy. Florence and Venice fought against Milan until the two republics made peace with the duchy at Ferrara in 1428. This epoch is known as the age of the Councils. Since the



return of the papacy to Rome there had generally been two popes, a pope and an anti-pope, and sometimes three, and a Council was summoned at Basel to heal this schism. The Council was removed from Basel to Ferrara and then to Florence, and the schism came eventually to an end. The Medici now began to rise into prominence at Florence, which became less republican in spirit, following the trend of the age. Other great families resented this, and Cosimo, afterwards known as the Father of his Country, was driven into exile by the Albizzi, but returning after a short absence became more powerful than ever. Naples came into the hands of Alfonso of Aragon ; Sforza, one of the noblest of the Condottieri, became Duke of Milan after the death of the last Visconti. Mantua had already become a Marquisate and Borso d' Este was invested with the Duchy of Modena by the Emperor Sigismund. Venice and Florence remained the only assertors of republican liberty, and Venice had great difficulty in preserving a mean between



THE ENTRY OF CHARLES VIII. INTO FLORENCE.

In 1492 Lodovico Sforza, Regent of Milan, determined to make himself master of that city. Wishing to make certain of support, he urged Charles VIII. of France to invade Italy. Charles crossed the Alps in 1495, marched through Lombardy, and entered Florence at the head of a formidable army without striking a blow.

democracy and monarchy. At length the peace of Lodi in 1454 appeased the conflict between the Signories and the Communes.

The year before this, 1453, witnessed a terrible blow dealt to the civilization of the world by the capture of Constantinople by the Ottoman Turks. The Byzantine Empire, so long a bulwark against barbarism, came to an end, and the only alleviation of the catastrophe was the spread of Greek learning in the West. The succeeding years witnessed the strengthening of the Spanish power in Naples, of the Sforzas in Milan, and of the Medici in Florence. The year 1492 is generally taken to mark the close of the Middle Ages. In that year Lorenzo, the most illustrious of the Medici, died ; Borgia, the most worldly of the popes, assumed the tiara, with the title of Alexander VI., and Christopher Columbus, the mariner of Cogoletto, set out to discover America.

At the dawn of Modern History we find Italy the most civilized country in Europe, distinguished in arts, letters and science, wealthy from the produce of agriculture, industry and commerce ; basking in the sun of the Renaissance ; fostered by the study of Greek literature, which had spread over the Western



*By permission of*

#### THE DEATH OF RAPHAEL.

*[The Autotype Fine Art Co.]*

Raphael Sanzio (1483-1520) was the son of Giovanni Sanzio, painter of some repute in Urbino. Among all the world's famous painters none has been so universally popular as Raphael. In the course of his short working life he passed through an extraordinary number of stages of development, while in versatility of style Raphael is practically unrivalled. His personal beauty, charm and kindness endeared him to all those who knew him. His sudden death at the age of thirty-seven, after a short attack of fever, excited universal grief in Rome.



Photo by]

[B. P. C.

## MAXIMILIAN I. AFTER THE OCCUPATION OF VERONA

Maximilian I. married in 1494 the daughter of the Duke of Milan and turned his ambition towards Italy. But after years of unsuccessful war in that country he was compelled in 1515 to give up Milan to France, while Verona was occupied by the Venetians.

world since the fall of Byzantium. In 1493, Charles VIII., King of France, an ugly little man, set out to conquer the kingdom of Naples, to which he had laid claim. He crossed the Alps, visited Sforza lying ill at Pavia, wrested Pisa from Florence, from which he drove out the Medici, but was resisted by Piero Capponi, the first of an illustrious family. Leaving the Pope alone, he entered his kingdom, but the enterprise came to nothing. Milan, Venice, Spain and the Emperor combined against him, and he had great difficulty in reaching France after winning the battle of Fornovo. This convulsion gave opportunity to Girolamo Savonarola to preach simplicity of life and recovery of liberty at Florence, while Machiavelli, the most distinguished writer of Italian prose, matured, as secretary of the Republic, his immortal "Prince." Louis XII., of the line of Orleans, who was abler than his successor Charles, got possession of Naples, and with the aid of Ferdinand of Spain and Pope Borgia, drove the Aragonese out of Naples, and began a series of wars, the object of which was to consolidate Italy as a nation, as France and Spain had been consolidated, and to decide which power should be at its head. Caesar Borgia intrigued hard for the claims of the papacy, but died without effecting his object. The chance of Venice was lost at Agnadello, a battle won by France and Spain, the Pope and the Emperor, joined together in the League of Cambray. Julius II., the warrior pope, for whom Michael Angelo spent and partly wasted his life, formed a Holy League, with Venice, Spain and England against France, illustrated by the valour and early death of Gaston de Foix, and by the exploits of Bayard, the knight without fear and without reproach. Julius was succeeded by Leo X., who in the pursuit of arts and letters surrendered more ambitious views.

Louis XII. was succeeded by his cousin Francis I., a very different character. He defeated the Swiss at Marignano, and the duchy of Milan, which two years before had been restored by Swiss aid to Sforza, and made peace with Charles V., who now, as a lad, appears upon the scene. Elected emperor at nineteen, he strides across the field of history holding in his grasp Spain, Germany and the Low Countries. War between him and Francis was inevitable. The French were driven from Lombardy, a German pope filled an interregnum between two popes of the House of Medici. Under the second of these, Clement VII.,

Francis attacked Pavia and was taken prisoner, so that Sforza returned to Milan and the whole of Italy was dominated by the Empire. The Holy League of Cognac was made by the Pope, Florence, Venice, Sforza and the King of France, for the expulsion of strangers from Italian soil. Under it Constable Bourbon and his twelve thousand German Landsknechts sacked Rome, and Andrew Doria of Genoa, who had joined Charles, protected Naples from the French. Charles was crowned Emperor at Bologna, and in a last struggle for liberty, illustrated by the contrasted exploits of the patriot Francesco Ferrucci and the traitor Baglioni, Florence was defeated and bowed her neck to the servitude of the Medici. Her material supremacy is at an end, but her spirit still animates the Italy of to-day.

For thirty years Italy has no history ; the eyes of the world are fixed on the contests of the Reformation. In 1559, by the Treaty of Cateau Cambresis, the House of Savoy, under Charles Philibert, came back to its Italian possessions ; Saluzzo went to France ; Montferrat to the Gonzagas, who already possessed Mantua ; the family of Doria swayed the republic of Genoa ; the Farnesi reigned in Parma, the Estes in Modena and Ferrara ; Tuscany obeyed the Ducal Medici, excepting Lucca, which remained a republic. The chill hand of Spain controlled, with governors and viceroys, the kingdom of Naples, the islands of Sardinia and Sicily, and the duchy of Milan, kept quiet in the sleep of death, a slumber which lasted a hundred and forty years. The Spanish domination of Italy, which extends from 1559 to the end of the seventeenth century, need not receive attention in these pages.

Italy has little political life till the advent of Napoleon, but the War of the Spanish Succession, which began in 1700, broke its repose. By the victory of Turin, Prince Eugene of Savoy, the saint of that



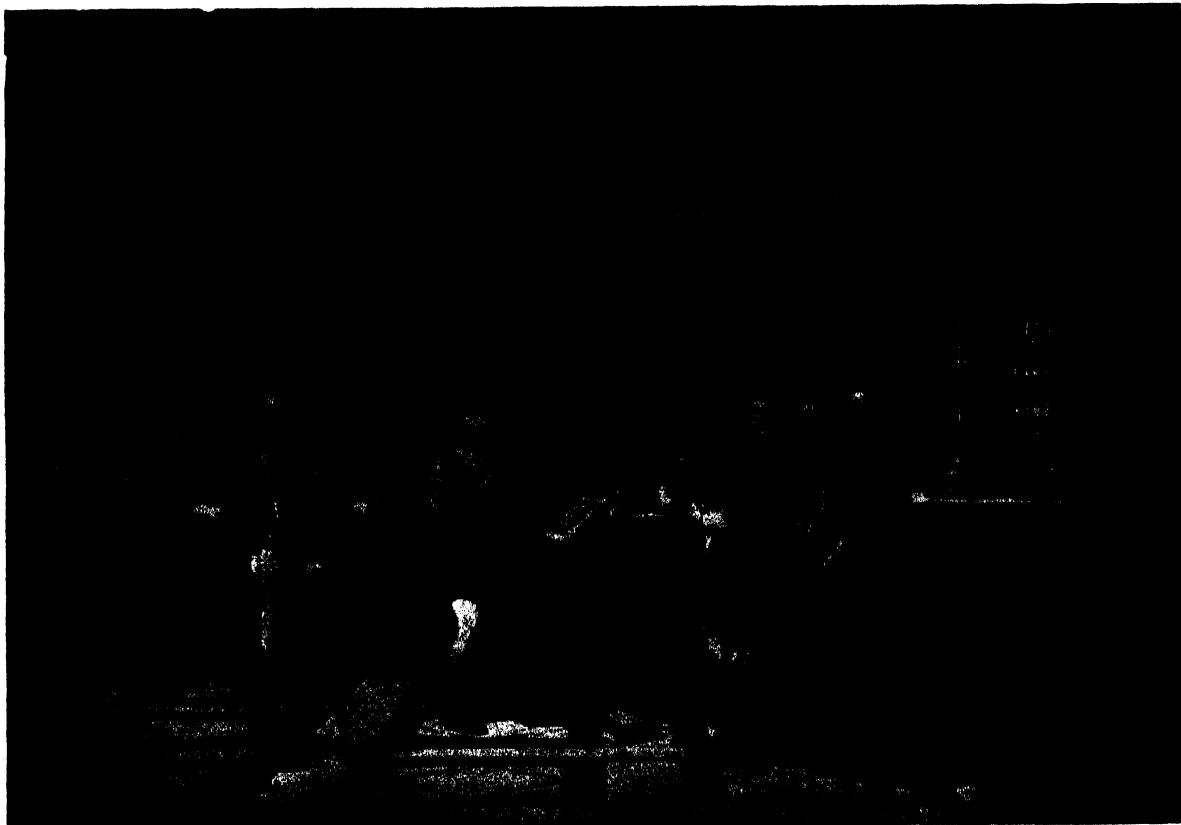
*From the painting]*

## WOMEN OF SIENA AID IN DEFENDING THEIR CITY.

*[By Hamman.*

French influence at Siena raised the anger of the Emperor Charles V., and of Cosimo de' Medici, who was anxious to annex the city. In 1553 Cosimo's general captured the forts of Porta Camollia, which the women in their devotion to the city had helped to raise. Siena was immediately invested, and after a heroic defence the Spanish troops of Charles entered its gates on April 21st, 1555.

world-struggle, saved Piedmont from the French, while Daun secured Naples for the Austrians. The Peace of Utrecht assured the predominance of Austria—bad indeed, but better than the Spaniards—and gave to that power Naples, Sardinia, Milan and Mantua, while it allowed Victor Amadeus to receive Savoy, Nice and Montferrat, and to hold the island of Sicily with the title of King. We have no space for the political intrigues of Albornaz and Elisabeth Farnese. The brilliant reign of Charles III., aided by his minister Tannucci, secured a happy interval of good government to Naples, until the unfortunate claims of heredity called him away to the throne of Spain, and left Ferdinand IV. in his place. In these years Leopold of Tuscany abolished the worst abuses of medieval government, and liberated the state from the control of the Church. The Jesuits were expelled from Naples, as they were also from France, Spain and Portugal. In the last quarter of the eighteenth century a better day began to dawn. The



*From the painting]*

#### GALILEO BEFORE THE PAPAL TRIBUNAL.

*[By J. V. Robert Henry.*

Galilei Galileo (1564-1642) was a mathematician and astronomer and established the Copernican theory. His lectures at Padua attracted students from all parts of Europe; but his new ideas provoked ecclesiastical censure. He was summoned before a papal tribunal in 1632 and condemned to abjure his scientific creed.

Order of the Jesuits was suppressed in Rome by Pope Clement XIV., and his successor, Pius VI., an enlightened patron of the arts, beautified the Eternal City, filled its museums and drained the Pontine Marshes. At the same time Joseph II., who succeeded his mother, the great Empress Maria Theresa, was more ardent than wise in civil and religious reform. But science and letters flourished under him, and Milan and Pavia became centres of intellectual life. Venice, long content with the enervating luxury of festivals and pageants, more advantageous to the artist and the tourist than to the welfare of the people, made war against Tunis.

When the French Revolution broke out in 1789, we find that Italy consisted of the kingdom of Sardinia, under Victor Amadeus III.; the principality of Monaco; the republic of Genoa; the Austrian duchies of Milan and Mantua; the Bourbon duchies of Parma and Piacenza; Modena, a duchy under the last Este, Hercules III., who also held Massa and Carrara in right of his wife; the republic of Venice;



*From the painting*

#### THE BATTLE OF TURIN.

The siege and battle of Turin was one of the fiercest engagements fought during the War of the Spanish Succession. In 1706 the French closely invested the city and made countless assaults upon it. On August 26th a small party of the enemy succeeded in reaching the postern-gate of the citadel unseen, but were driven back by a mine which was fired under them. A few days later Eugene of Savoy and Victor II. united their forces, and issuing from the city inflicted a crushing defeat on the French.

*[By Giovanni Huettenberg.]*



From the painting]

[By G. B. Veriussen.

## THE BATTLE OF GUASTALLA.

This engagement took place during the War of the Polish Succession (1733-1735). In 1734 the Austrians were defeated at Guastalla by the French under Charles Emmanuel III., who, for his success, was awarded the duchy of Milan.

Tuscany; a Grand Duchy under Leopold of Lorraine; Lucca, a republic; the States of the Church under Pius VI.; Saint Marino, a republic; Sicily and Naples, under Ferdinand IV. Such was the motley group of thrones, dominations, principedoms, kingdoms and powers on which Napoleon, himself an Italian, was to lay his reforming and vivifying hand.

The outbreak of the Revolution in France roused a sympathetic enthusiasm in Italy; the peoples rebelled against the absolutism of their governments, and yearned passionately for liberty and equality. Movements in aid of these sentiments were sternly repressed by a cruel police. The King of Sardinia proposed to form a league of Italian States to oppose the aggression of French ideas, and the French answered by occupying Savoy and Nice. After the execution of Louis XVI., the King of Naples and the Grand Duke of Tuscany declared themselves enemies of France. Basseville, the French Ambassador, was murdered in Rome, and Corsica proclaimed her independence. The efforts of the French against Sardinia and Austria were of little value until Bonaparte appeared upon the scene in 1796. In two marvellous years he beat the allied armies at Montenotte, Dego and Millesimo, and made a peace with Sardinia, by which Savoy and Nice were surrendered to France. He defeated the Austrians at Lodi and Arcola, captured Milan, and founded the Cispadane Republic. He made a treaty with Pius VI. at Tolentino, by which the Pope surrendered Avignon and his possessions in the north of Italy. A Ligurian Republic was formed at Genoa, and eventually the greater part of Northern Italy was consolidated into the Cisalpine Republic. These arrangements were ratified at the Peace of Campo Formio, and Austria was compensated for her losses by the possession of Venice. In 1798 the Pope was driven from Rome, and a republic was proclaimed. Piedmont was occupied by the French; Naples lost her king and became the Parthenopean Republic; Tuscany, Lucca and Piombino followed suit. Many of these

conquests were lost by the absence of Bonaparte in Egypt, but were recovered by the victory of Marengo.

At length Napoleon, who had been crowned by the Pope at Paris Emperor of the French, was crowned King of Italy at Milan, and the Viceroyalty was committed to the excellent government of Eugene Beauharnais, his stepson, Lucca and Piombino were placed under Elisa Baciocchi, the sister of Napoleon, a very able woman, and Genoa was united to the French Empire. After the victory of Austerlitz, by the Treaty of Presburg, Venice, Friuli, Istria and Dalmatia were joined to the kingdom of Italy. In 1806 Joseph Bonaparte was made King of Naples, Ferdinand retiring to Sicily. In 1808 Murat, who had married Napoleon's sister, became King of Naples, and Napoleon's first-born son received the title of King of Rome. The government of Italy by Napoleon was liberal and enlightened; he was the first to recognize that the Italians were capable of self-government, and he paved the way for a united Italy. If a second son had been born to him he would probably have founded a line of Italian kings. Italy has never forgotten, and never will forget, what she owes to him. This bright prospect for the future was destroyed by the defeat of Napoleon in Russia and his final fall at Waterloo.

The policy of the Treaty of Vienna was to reverse everything which Napoleon had done or had desired to do, to reward his enemies and to punish his friends. Italy was given back to its old rulers, except that Parma and Piacenza were conferred for her lifetime upon Marie Louise, the second wife of Napoleon.



*From the painting]*

*[By F. Philpoteaux*

## NAPOLEON AT THE BATTLE OF RIVOLI.

The battle of Rivoli (1797) was one of a succession of victories won by the French over the Austrians and Italians during Napoleon Bonaparte's campaign of 1796-1797. Although the French army was a small one, the genius of its leader fully counterbalanced the enemy's superiority in numbers.



The new sovereigns destroyed all liberal institutions, ignored the constitutions which had been granted, imprisoned and persecuted the friends of liberty, and the Pope recalled the Jesuits. The place of open constitutional opposition was taken by secret societies, the best known of which is the Carbonari. The next thirty years are marked by attempts to recover what had been lost, and to restore to Italy the liberty of which Napoleon had given her a taste. These efforts, one after the other, were crushed by the pressure of Austrian arms under the ruthless direction of the shallow and frivolous, but bigoted and cruel, Metternich. No wonder that the name of Austrian is detested in Italy. In 1820 Naples and Sicily established a constitution to which the king swore allegiance; but the Austrian armies marched, and the perjured king was only too happy to punish with atrocity his liberal ministers. In 1822 the Con-



VENETIAN WOMEN SACRIFICING THEIR JEWELLERY.

In 1848 Italy revolted against the Austrian domination, but the Austrians proved themselves too strong, and only Venice, by reason of its natural defences, successfully resisted a siege. Not until all its resources had been utterly exhausted—women even converted their jewels into money—did Venice surrender under treaty.

gress of Verona gave its approval to this unprincipled policy. In 1831 another outbreak took place in Rome, Umbria, the Marches, Bologna and Modena, which was repressed by the same means. In this Louis Napoleon, afterwards the Emperor Napoleon III., took part, and he never lost his sympathy for the country from which his family sprung, for which his illustrious uncle had done so much. In the following year Giuseppe Mazzini, a Genoese, founded the secret society of Young Italy, which, supported by the sympathies of great thinkers and writers, led to the outbreaks, which, beginning with Rome and Italy, speedily convulsed the whole of Europe.

Pius IX., succeeding Gregory XVI. as Pope, seemed to place himself at the head of liberal aspirations. By an amnesty for political offenders and by wise reforms of administration, he excited the enthusiasm of the Italian people. His example was followed by Tuscany and Sardinia, but Austria was on the watch, and took possession of Ferrara. At the beginning of 1848, Sicily revolted against the rule of Naples



From the painting]

A CAVALRY CHARGE, NOVARA, 1849.

[By C. Urigo.

The campaign on behalf of Italian Unity in 1849 culminated with the battle of Novara, in which the Piedmontese and Sardinians were completely defeated by the Austrians under Marshal Radetzky. The Austrian army was indisputably superior to that of the Italians. Charles Albert was forced to abdicate, and his successor, Victor Emmanuel II., compelled to make a hasty armistice. Genoese cavalry are seen charging in a desperate effort to retrieve the fortunes of their side.



*From the painting]*

*[By Franz Adam.*

#### RADETZKY AND HIS STAFF

Johann Joseph Radetzky (1766-1858) was a great general and commander of the Austrian army during the Italian campaign (1848-1849). Although seventy years of age when he became field-marshal, he displayed the activity of youth in handling his soldiers, who carried all before them up to the final triumph at the battle of Novara.

and Naples itself against the tyranny of the king. Ferdinand granted a constitution, as did also Charles Albert in Piedmont, Leopold II. in Tuscany, and Pope Pius IX. in Rome. Modena and Parma remained faithful to Austria, who proclaimed martial law in her Italian dominions. Milan refused to submit, and in the Five glorious Days, beginning with March 18th, still celebrated by a yearly festival, fought nobly against Austria. Venice declared itself a republic, and Charles Albert went to war. In May the tide began to turn. Austria gradually increased her armies, the Pope and Ferdinand withdrew their troops, the Tuscans were defeated, but Piedmont still held aloft the banner of liberty, and gained victories at Goito and Custoza. The struggle continued during the whole of the year, but terrified by the murder of Rossi, the liberal minister of the Pope, Pius IX. withdrew from his liberal position, and was compelled by a popular rising to take refuge in Gaeta, where he was soon joined by the Grand Duke of Tuscany. In March, 1849, Charles Albert suffered the disastrous defeat of Novara, abdicated in favour of his son, Victor Emmanuel, then twenty-nine years old, and died at Oporto. Venice still resisted under Daniel Manin; Tuscany elected a dictator; Rome was governed by a triumvirate, of whom Mazzini was the head. Rome, assailed by France and other countries, resisted bravely under Garibaldi, whose equestrian statue on the Janiculan dominates the scene of his heroic defence, and divides attention with the Cupola of St. Peter's. Exposed to the assaults of the perfidious French, whose recollection of their own conflicts should have kept them faithful to their brother Latins, the Italian republicans were compelled to yield. A pall of absolutism enveloped the country. Ferdinand subdued Sicily and abolished the constitution; the Austrians invaded Tuscany and held it in the name of the Grand Duke. In August, Victor Emmanuel made peace with Austria at Milan, but he never abolished the constitution, and earned the title of King Honest Man. Venice was the last to yield, decimated by famine and pestilence. In 1850 the tyrants returned. Ferdinand threw Poerio into prison, earning for himself an immortal name, and the pallor of

confinement which never left his face. Pius IX. went back to Rome, supported by French bayonets, Leopold II. reigned in Tuscany, Charles III. in Parma, Francis V. in Modena—all enemies of liberty, of which Piedmont was now the only refuge. A subalpine parliament, the child of the constitution, met at Turin and ratified the conditions of the Peace of Milan. Camillo Cavour, one of the great constructive statesmen of the world, was at the head of the ministry, and in ten short years at last effected the object for which so many patriots had shed their blood.

His first step in effecting this object was to make an alliance with England and France in the Crimean war against Russia, by which he secured that Italy should take part in the European Congress which followed the conclusion of peace. By this he secured that the Unity of Italy should be recognized by statesmen as one of the questions which pressed for settlement. The Emperor was already devoted to this cause, and an interview between him and the minister was held at Plombières, in which there was not much difficulty in arranging details. War broke out in 1859; a large French army invaded Lombardy; the battles of Magenta and Solferino were won, the last with such slaughter that the nerves of the Emperor were shaken. He dreaded to attack the strong quadrilateral of fortresses which were still held by

Austria, and a peace was made at Villafranca, by which Austria ceded to the King of Sardinia Lombardy as far as the Mincio, but retained Venice and Venetia. Cavour was furious at this breach of faith, and after a stormy interview with the King, resigned his office. But the movement of the people was not stayed. The Emilia, Romagna and Tuscany expelled their princes, and by a solemn plebiscite placed themselves under the constitutional government of Victor Emmanuel. Garibaldi, always ready to risk his life in the cause of liberty, disembarked with the immortal Thousand at Marsala, assisted by the active sympathy of an English commodore, liberated Palermo, conquered Messina, crossed the straits, and entered Naples in triumph, while the unfortunate young King Francis fled to Gaeta. The king was obliged to move. Cialdini routed the pontifical zouaves, and advanced to Capua, whilst Garibaldi



*From the painting]*

*[By H. Vernet.*

## CHARLES ALBERT OF SARDINIA.

Charles Albert (1798-1849) came to the Sardinian throne in 1831. He reorganized his kingdom, which he found in a chaotic state, and devoted his reign to trying to free Italy from Austrian dominion. But after the disastrous defeat at Novara the unhappy king retired to a monastery, where he died.

kept back the Bourbon troops on the Volturno. King and hero met together on horseback in the neighbourhood of Teano, and by a grasp of each other's hand, which lasted many minutes, consecrated the Unity of Italy. By an almost unanimous vote Umbria, the Marches, Naples and Sicily joined the kingdom of Victor Emmanuel. After the fall of Gaeta, the last refuge of the Bourbons, the first Italian Parliament met at Turin, and on March 17th, 1861, proclaimed Victor Emmanuel as King of Italy, with Rome as his capital. A few months later, on June 6th, Camillo Cavour, the chief architect of this great fabric, died after a short illness, to the sorrow of his country and of the world.

It was very difficult to complete the work which Cavour had begun. Garibaldi had long before taken as his watchword, "Rome or death." He collected troops to cross the Austrian frontier, but was prevented by the government. He then went into Sicily and crossed the Straits into Calabria. Marching towards Rome, he was wounded at Aspromonte and taken prisoner, but was soon afterwards liberated.



*From the painting]*

THE BATTLE OF PALESTRO, 1859.

*[By Emilio Lapi.*

The campaign of 1859 opened with actions at Montebello and Palestro. In the latter the Emperor Napoleon gave orders to Victor Emmanuel on the 28th May to cross the Sesia and hold Palestro. This manoeuvre covered the crossing of the French at Vercelli, and Victor Emmanuel was successful in driving back the enemy after a stubborn resistance.

Rome was at this time occupied by a French garrison, which had been there since 1849, and for many reasons, personal and public, Napoleon III. refused to remove it. In 1864, the Italian government made a convention with the Emperor, by which he promised to evacuate the city on condition that the Italians did not attack it, and that the capital should be moved from Turin to Florence. Florence was, indeed, the spiritual capital of Italy, but unless the seat of government were fixed at Rome, Italy would be split up into two parts. The parliament approved of the Convention, but the people were discontented. In 1866 war broke out between Prussia and Austria, and Italy, which detested Austria, took the side of Prussia. The Garibaldians distinguished themselves more than the Italian armies in the field; but after the victory of the Prussians, Venice was restored to Italy. In the following year Garibaldi, escaping from the island of Caprera, where he had built himself a house, invaded the papal dominions with a body of volunteers. A French army was sent by Napoleon to support the papal troops, and the Garibaldians were defeated at Mentana, where the French General Fially reported that the chassepots



From the painting

### THE BATTLE OF SOLFERINO.

The battle of Solferino or San Martino was fought on 24th June, 1859, between the allied Franco-Sardinian army, under Napoleon III. and Victor Emmanuel, and the Austrian forces, commanded by Francis Joseph II. in person. But the Austrians had no better success under his leadership than they had under their former general. Napoleon III. sent his main column against the Austrian centre, which occupied a hill near Solferino. After a very severe engagement, the height was captured by the French, and the Austrians were driven back across the River Mincio

[By Carlo Ademollo.]

*From the painting]*

## THE BATTLE OF MILAZZO.

*[By Guido Vannucci.*

In June, 1860, most of the island of Sicily had been evacuated by the Bourbonists, but Garibaldi, with a force of 12,000 men, encountered some 4,000 of the enemy at Milazzo, where, on July 20th, a desperate battle took place, resulting in a Garibaldian victory.

had done wonders. In 1870 the great war broke out between Prussia and France, Italy remaining neutral. The French were completely beaten at Sedan on September 2nd, the Emperor was taken prisoner, and France became a republic. The new government recalled the French garrison from Rome; the Italian army invaded the papal territory on September 11th, and in a week's time reached Rome after little resistance, and entered the city on September 20th, through a breach made in the city walls, close to Porta Pia. On October 2nd the Romans, by an almost unanimous vote, expressed their desire to be joined to the Kingdom of Victor Emmanuel. In the following year Rome became the capital, and the Unity of Italy was complete.

The construction of the new kingdom, with its new capital, was a work of great difficulty, as everything had to be done. There was no adequate army or fleet, few roads, little or no education. The finances were in disorder, credit was low, industries scarcely existed. Brigandage, a chronic evil of old standing, was rife in the Abruzzi and other parts, where the young men, instead of taking to the road, now go to make their fortunes in America. The royal government was opposed, on one side by the Mazzinians, who desired a republic, and on the other by the clericals, who regarded the king as an usurper and a robber. Italy was the Cinderella of European nations, and France, which had done so much for her liberation, did not desire that she should become too powerful. In 1876 the Right, or Conservative party, in the Chambers, which had effected most of these reforms, under the able guidance of Lanza, Sella and Minghetti, was succeeded by the Liberal, or Left, under the leadership of Agostino Depretis. At length Victor Emmanuel, who with Cavour and Garibaldi, had been one of the chief founders of United Italy, died on January 9th, 1878, and within a month was followed to the grave by Pope Pius IX., who was succeeded by Leo XIII.

The first Prime Minister of the new King Humbert I. was Benedetto Cairoli, who was succeeded at various times by Francesco Crispi, Zanardelli, du Rudini, and Giolitti. Italian statesmen are commemorated not so much by statues as by streets. The Liberals were in favour of an active economical and colonial

policy. The tunnels of the Mont Cenis and the St. Gothard were completed ; many railways were built both in Italy and in the islands ; large portions of Rome were reconstructed, not always to the satisfaction of antiquarians, but to the improvement of the health and well-being of the citizens. Art and industry were encouraged by exhibitions held in different cities, the last of which was held at Rome in 1911. The army was remodelled ; a navy was called into existence, which formed a valuable training for Italians of all classes, just as the army fused into one nation the provinces of which it was composed. Above all, the country received for the first time a system of national education, compulsory and gratuitous, adapted both to the country and the town. It could no longer be a reproach to Italians that with all their ability they did not know how to read or write. The finances were placed in a secure position, which was able to weather the crisis of 1888 and the rupture of commercial relations with France.

King Humbert set an example of a democratic sovereignty, which has been followed by his son and successor, Victor Emmanuel III., and will probably be preserved so long as there is a kingdom in Italy. He was always the first to be at the scene of any national calamity, and in this he was seconded by his noble wife, Margaret of Savoy, his cousin, who still as Queen Mother is a stimulus to all improvement and an angel of mercy to all who are afflicted. On July 28th, 1883, the lovely town of Casamicciola, in the island of Ischia, was destroyed by an earthquake. The moment he heard of it, King Humbert hurried to the scene of disaster, and at great personal risk helped the soldiers and the citizens to disinter from the ruins the dying and the dead. In the following year a violent attack of cholera devastated the north of Italy, extending even to Naples. Invited to the races at Pordenone, he telegraphed to the Prime Minister : " At Pordenone they are amusing themselves ; at Naples they are dying. I go to Naples."

As the prosperity of Italy increased, the Government, supported by the King, desired to acquire colonies, which are a necessity to a maritime country. A private society ceded to the nation a territory on the Bay of Assab in the Red Sea, on the east coast of Africa. It was occupied and called by the name of Colonia Eritrea. In spite of all attempts at friendship, the foundation of this colony was resented by the Abyssinians, then ruled over by Negus John, and on January 26th, 1887, a column of five hundred



*From the painting]*

## MEETING OF GARIBALDI AND VICTOR EMMANUEL AT TEANO.

*[By Carlo Ademollo.*

In October, 1860, a battle was fought on the Volturno, where Garibaldi arrived in time to turn defeat into victory for his men. After this success the great leader met Victor Emmanuel at Teano, hailed him King of Italy, and subsequently handed over his conquests to him.

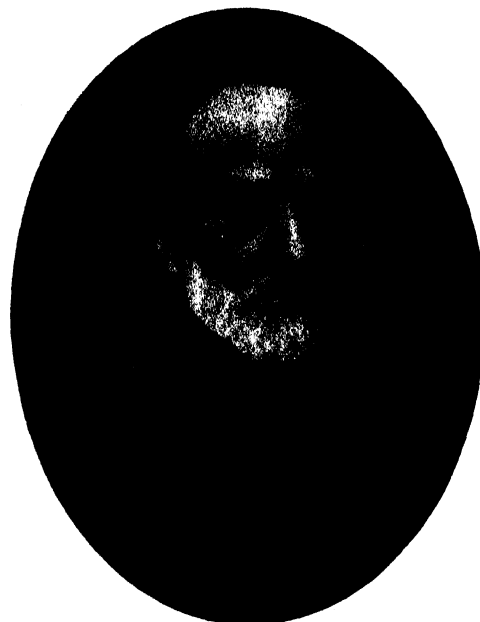




VICTOR EMMANUEL II.

Victor Emmanuel II. (1820-1878) ascended the throne of Sardinia in 1849. In 1861 he was proclaimed King of Italy at Turin, and reigned as a strictly constitutional monarch.

Tigrè. Crispi, who was then Prime Minister, conceived the idea of a vast African Empire. But on March 1st, 1896, the Italians suffered a terrible defeat at Adowa, losing all their artillery. Nearly four thousand five hundred men were killed and two hundred and fifty-four officers. Dismayed by this defeat



GIUSEPPE MAZZINI.

Giuseppe Mazzini (1805-1872) was an ardent Italian republican and patriot, and closely identified with the Garibaldian movement. He possessed great powers of organization, and sowed the seed of Italian unity.

Italian soldiers was destroyed by the Abyssinians at Dogali. John died and was succeeded by Menelik, an ambitious sovereign, and in 1889 a treaty was signed by which the western coast of the Red Sea, as far as the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, was placed under the protection of the Italians. This treaty Menelik refused to respect.

In July, 1894, Baratieri, governor of Eritrea, took possession of Cassala and occupied

the Italians turned to England for assistance; they represented that Eritrea, which had been first occupied under English advice, was in danger, and they asked for help to save Cassala. The consequence of this was an expedition against Dongola, which eventually resulted in the capture of Khartum. Italy gave up Tigrè and the protectorate of Abyssinia, and the territory of Eritrea was reduced to moderate dimensions.



GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI.

Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807-1878) was a famous Italian patriot, and took a leading part in the War of Italian Liberation. His death at his home on the island of Caprera plunged the whole of Italy into mourning.

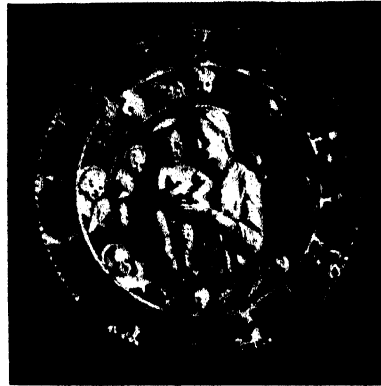


From the painting]

COUNT CAMILLO BENSO DI CAVOUR.

Count Camillo Benso di Cavour (1810-1861) was a great Italian statesman, and an opponent of the ultra-democratic party. He secretly encouraged Garibaldi, but aimed at the establishment of a monarchy.

[By Carnevali.



*Photo by*

#### EXAMPLES OF WORK BY ITALIAN SCULPTORS.

*[W. A. Mansell & Co.*

Reading from right to left: Bust of a child, by Donatello; enameled plaque, representing the Virgin and Child, with a border of sculptured fruits, by Della Robbia; bust of a child, by Donatello; bas-relief of an unknown man; statue of St. George of England; bas-relief of St. Cecilia, all by Donatello; statue of Giuliano de' Medici, by Michael Angelo; portrait bust of an unknown lady, by Verrochio; statue of Moses, by Michael .



#### ITALIAN TROOPS LANDING AFTER THE BOMBARDMENT OF BENGASI.

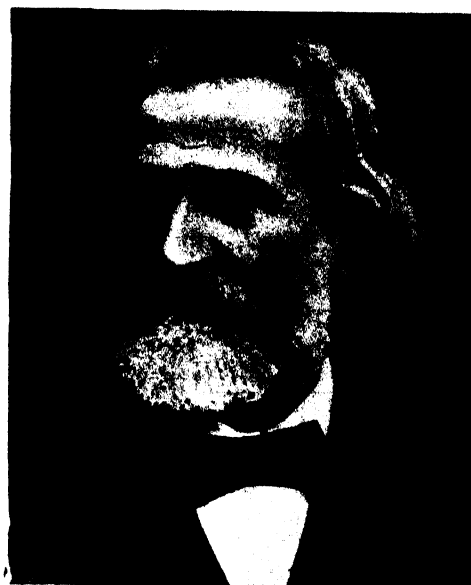
On September 29th, 1911, the Italian Government declared war on Turkey, which had refused to permit the military occupation of Tripoli by Italy. The transport of the Italian Expeditionary Force over to the north of Africa was commenced on October 9th. On the 18th the transports arrived off the seaport of Bengasi, which was subjected to heavy fire by Italian warships. After a bombardment lasting some hours, causing immense damage to the town, the inhabitants of which sustained about four thousand casualties, Bengasi was reduced and the landing of ten thousand Italian troops was accomplished.



GIUSEPPE VERDI.

Giuseppe Verdi (1813-1901), famous Italian composer. His best known works are the operas, "Rigoletto," "Il Trovatore," "La Traviata," and "Aida."

In the autumn of 1887 a Triple Alliance was formed between Germany, Austria and Italy, which claimed to be a league of peace. It was inaugurated by Crispi in a visit paid by him to Bismarck at Friedrichsruhe. In Italy dread of France had taken the place of hatred of Austria, and France in her jealousy of Italy was inclined to turn to



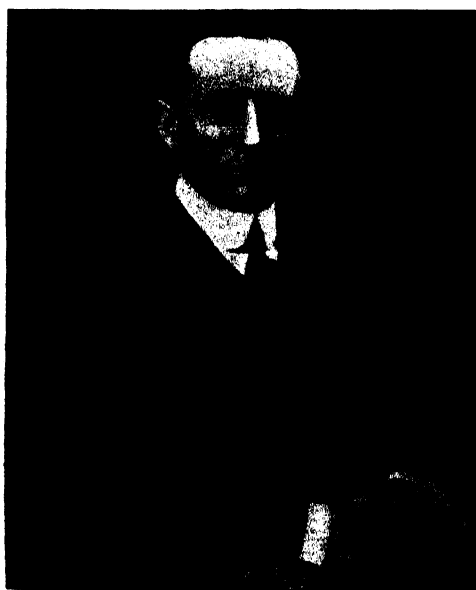
ANTONIO ROSSINI.

Antonio Rossini (1792-1868). This Italian composer wrote many operas, the best known being, "Il Barbiere di Seviglia," "Semiramide," and "Guillaume Tell."

Russia. Lord Salisbury, then Prime Minister of England, supported the scheme as on the whole favourable to peace. But it has turned out a broken reed. On July 29th, 1900, King Humbert was murdered by three shots from a revolver as he was returning late in the evening from a gymnastic fête at Monza, leaving behind him the reputation of a really good sovereign, having strengthened the ties between the House of Savoy and the Italian people.

Victor Emmanuel III., the new King of Italy, had married Elena of Montenegro in 1896. He is a worthy descendant of his race. He is a man of few words, but of much reflection and of high conscientious-

ness. He lives a simple life, which leaves time for work and study; he is probably the greatest living authority on Italian numismatics, on which he has published some stately volumes. He and the Queen are devoted to their children, and they are never happier than when at Castel Porziano or at San Rossore they are playing



GUGLIELMO MARCONI.

Guglielmo Marconi, born (1875) at Bologna, is the inventor and perfecter of wireless telegraphy. He received (1909) the Nobel Prize for physics.



GABRIELE D'ANNUNZIO.

Gabriele d'Annunzio, poet and novelist, born (1864) at Pescara, is the author of many works, both in Italian and English.

with them in the open air or watching them sport in the sea. Like his father, he is the first to be present at any scene of public suffering. When shortly after his accession, a railway accident took place at Castel Giubileo, the King and Queen left the palace at midnight in an ordinary cab, and saved lives by their energy. After the earthquake at Messina in 1909, they were first upon the scene, the Queen, in her white nurse's dress, tending the crushed and wounded sufferers with her own hands. And in the last terrible catastrophe, in the Marsica and the Abruzzi, when on January 13th, 1915, in a few seconds thirty thousand people were slain by the ruin of their homes, the King exhibited the same virtues, filling his car and his train with the little orphans whom the earthquake had robbed of their parents. The severe training of his youth has produced a man, clever, modest and resolute, whose personality is felt in every department of the national life.

The most prominent event in Italy in recent years has been the occupation of Tripoli, much misunderstood at the time, but really an indispensable duty, full of promise for civilization and admirably carried out. In September, 1911, it became evident that unless Italy stirred herself, the whole of the Mediter-

anean coast of Africa would be in the hands of other powers than Italy, France having Morocco, Algiers and Tunis, and England, Egypt. Besides, the frontiers of Tripoli on both sides seemed to be threatened by France and England. Giolitti, the Prime Minister, determined on



**KING HUMBERT.**

Humbert I. (1844-1900) married in 1868 his cousin, Margherita of Savoy, and became King of Italy in 1878. He was assassinated in 1900.



**VICTOR EMMANUEL.**

Victor Emmanuel was born in 1869, and married in 1896 Princess Elena of Montenegro. He succeeded to the throne of Italy in 1900, after the assassination of his father, Humbert I.

anean expedition, which was carried out with speed and judgment and was crowned by success. War was declared on September 29th, 1911; the army disembarked at Dobruk on October 4th; Tripoli was occupied on October 11th, Derna on October 18th, Bengasi on October 19th, and Homs on

October 21st. Much fighting was necessary to secure the possession of these places. On November 5th a royal decree proclaimed the sovereignty of Italy over the territory of Tripoli and Cyrenaica.

The conquests of Italy did not stop with Africa. After bombarding the forts of the Dardanelles on April 18th, 1912, the island of Stampalia was taken on the following day and Rhodes on May 17th. Turkey replied by expelling all Italians from the Turkish Empire, an act which was generally regarded as cruel and unnecessary. Eventually peace was concluded at Lausanne on October 15th. The war in Tripoli had a great effect in drawing together the Italian people and strengthening their character. It consolidated the different provinces of which Italy is composed, and showed the world that the inhabitants of the peninsula are no longer Romans or Neapolitans, Piedmontese or Venetians, but Italians. The people bore success and failure with equal constancy, courage and moderation. All parties—Conservatives and Liberals, Clericals, Socialists and Republicans—all supported the Government and sympathized in its single aim.

To those who in their youth desired and witnessed the Unity of Italy the progress made in the last fifty years seems marvellous, and there is no country in Europe which can look forward to a brighter future than Italy.

# DATES OF OTTOMAN HISTORY

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Commencement of the Empire.	1258	Birth of Osman I.
	1288	Capture of Karaja-Hissar.
	1299	Osman I. declares himself Sultan.
	1326	Accession of Orkhan. Conquest of Brusa.
	1330	Conquest of Nicæa.
Growth up to the catastrophe of Angora.	1357	Ottoman occupation of Gallipoli.
	1360	Accession of Murad I.
	1361	Conquest of Adrianople.
	1362	Conquest of Philippopolis.
	1381	Conquest of Monastir.
	1386	Battle of Conia.
	1389	Battle of Kossovo. Death of Murad I. Accession of Bayazid I.
	1396	Battle of Nicopolis.
Recovery and growth till the taking of Constantinople.	1402	Battle of Angora. Defeat and subsequent death of Bayazid I.
	1413	Battle of Chamurli, wherein the civil war terminated to the advantage of Mohammed I.
	1416	First hostilities between the Venetians and the Ottomans.
	1421	Accession of Murad II.
	1430	Final seizure of Salonica by the Ottomans.
	1438	Incorporation of Serbia as an Ottoman province.
	1441	Defeat of an Ottoman army by Hunyades in Siebenburgen. 1443. Further victory of Hunyades at Nish.
	1444	Peace of Szegedin between Hungary and Turkey. Violated by the former. Defeat of Hunyades at Varna.
	1446	Greece incorporated in the Ottoman Empire.
	1448	Second defeat of Hunyades at Kossovo.
	1449	Defeat of Murad by Scanderbeg. Invasion of Albania by the Ottomans.
Period of greatest expansion.	1450	Relief of Croia by Scanderbeg.
	1451	Death of Murad II. Accession of Mohammed II.
	1453	Taking of Constantinople.
	1454	Treaty between Venice and Turkey.
	1459	Final subjugation of Serbia. Council of Mantua.
	1461	Taking of Trebizond.
	1462	Subjugation of Wallachia. Conquest of Lesbos.
	1463	Subjugation of Bosnia. Alliance of Venice, Hungary and the Pope against Turkey.
	1464	Pius II. starts on a crusade against the Ottomans, but dies in Ancona.
	1470	Taking of Negroponte. 1473. Final subjugation of Caramania.
	1475	Subjugation of the Genoese colonies.
Commencement of decline.	1478	Taking of Croia, and subjugation of Albania.
	1480	Ottoman raid on South Italy and seizure of Otranto, which is abandoned the next year.
	1481	Accession of Bayazid II.
	1497	First Ottoman invasion of Poland.
	1502	King Henry VII. sends help to the Hungarians against Turkey.
	1512	Accession of Selim I. 1516. Conquest of Mesopotamia and Kurdistan.
	1517	Conquest of Syria and Egypt. Incorporation of Arabia.
	1521	Accession of Sulaiman I. 1521. Taking of Belgrade.
	1521	Conquest of Rhodes.
	1521	First Ottoman siege of Vienna.
	1521	First "Capitulations" with France. Taking of Baghdad.
	1521	Moldavia incorporated in the Ottoman Empire.
	1521	Conquest of Tripoli.
	1521	Taking of Chios. Accession of Selim II.
	1571	Taking of Cyprus. Battle of Lepanto. 1574. Accession of Murad III.
	1578	First English agent in Constantinople.
First period of attempted reforms.	1595	Accession of Mohammed III. 1603. Accession of Ahmad I.
	1606	Peace of Sitvatorok.
	1617	Accession of Mustafa I. 1618. Accession of Osman II. after dethronement of Mustafa.
	1622	Restoration of Mustafa I. First antagonism between British and Russian agents in Constantinople.
	1623	Accession of Murad IV.
	1640	Accession of Ibrahim I.
	1645	Commencement of Ottoman invasion of Crete.
	1648	Accession of Mohammed IV.
	1669	Conquest of Crete.
	1673	Battle of Choczim, wherein J. Sobieski defeats the Ottomans.
	1683	Second siege of Vienna.
	1687	Accession of Sulaiman II.
	1691	Accession of Ahmad II. 1695. Accession of Mustafa II.
	1699	Peace of Carlowicz.
	1703	Accession of Ahmad III.
	1710	War with Russia.
"The sick man."	1717	Loss of Belgrade. 1730. Accession of Mahmud I.
	1736-39	War with Russia and Austria, ending with peace of Belgrade.
	1754	Accession of Osman III.
	1757	Accession of Mustafa III.
	1761	First treaty between Prussia and Turkey.
	1764	War with Russia.
	1773	Accession of Abd al-Hamid I.
	1774	Peace of Kuchuk-Kainarje.
	1787	War with Russia.
	1789	Accession of Selim III.
	1792	Peace of Jassy.
	1798	Napoleon's invasion of Egypt.
	1806	Movement for independence in Serbia.
	1807	Accession of Mustafa IV.—1808. Accession of Mahmud II.
	1809	War with Russia.
	1812	Peace of Bucharest.
	1826	Overthrow of the Janissaries.
	1828-29	Russian War. Freedom of Greece.
	1839	Accession of Abd al-Majid.
	1854-56	Crimean War.
	1861	Accession of Abd al-Aziz.
	1876	Accession of Murad V., followed by Abd al-Hamid II. Proclamation of Ottoman Constitution.
	1877	War with Russia.
	1878	Treaty of Berlin.
	1897	War with Greece.
	1908	Restoration of Constitution.
	1909	Deposition of Abd al-Hamid and accession of Mohammed V.
	1911-12	War with Italy; loss of Tripoli.
	1912-13	Balkan War.

## CHAPTER XXVIII

*THE TURKS.* By PROFESSOR D. S. MARGOLIOUTH, M.A., D.Litt.

ALTHOUGH the Ottomans are the only Turkish community which has played an important part in European politics, the nation to which they belong has had a lengthy history. Its early vicissitudes belong to the annals of China; and from Chinese authorities it is inferred that the appellation *Turk* was taken in the fifth century of our era by a group of Hiung-nu families who, fleeing from the East, occupied a helmet-shaped hill not far from the city Shan-tan in Kan-suh, and called themselves by a word signifying *helmet*. Whether this be true or not, in the sixth century of our era rulers of Turkestan are heard



MAP OF TURKEY.

The Turkish Ottoman Empire comprises Turkey in Europe and Turkey in Asia. The mainstay of the Ottoman dynasty is the Asiatic portion of the empire, which is bounded on the north by the Black Sea; on the west by the Bosphorus, Sea of Marmora, the Dardanelles and Aegean Sea; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea and Arabia, and on the east by Persia and Transcaucasia.

of in Europe, and in the seventh they come in contact with the Moslem invaders, and are rendered at least to some extent tributary to the powerful empire which had its capital in Damascus. The fighting qualities of these nomads soon become celebrated, and the Islamic sovereigns take tribute from Turkestan in lads to be trained for the royal guard. In the third century of Islam this guard becomes too powerful for the sovereign, and assumes the right to depose and appoint the head of the state. In the fifth century a Turkish family called the Seljuks assumes the reins of government in the metropolis, and the dominions of the Eastern Caliphate are divided between different branches of this stock. One of these establishes itself at Conia, the ancient Iconium, and is known as the Seljuk dynasty of Asia Minor. Whereas the ruling families adopted Islamic civilization, with the paraphernalia of an Oriental court, it would seem that the populations of Turkestan retained their older institutions and religions, which were only gradually abandoned for those of Islam by whole tribes which migrated westward to seek their fortune in the service of one or other Moslem chief.

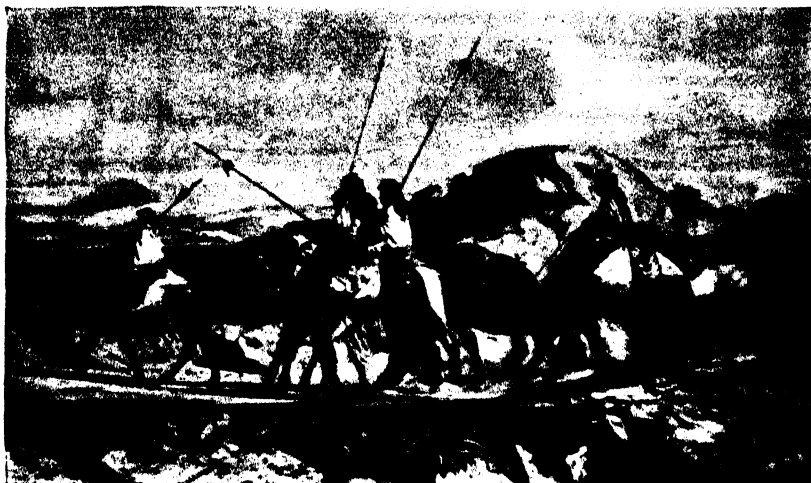


Photo by]

[Levy frères.

## TURCOMANS ON THE MARCH.

The Turcomans are brave but wild and lawless nomadic tribes inhabiting the territory east of the Caspian Sea. Until the Russian annexation of their country in 1881 they lived mostly by depredations upon their neighbours.

which was founded by this man's son, we have to remember the salient facts of the history of this region in the thirteenth century of our era. On the one hand, the Seljuk house of Asia Minor had outlived the other branches, and even survived the general destruction of the Eastern Caliphate by the Mongols. On the other hand, the Crusaders had seriously weakened the Byzantine empire, which until their time had proved a powerful buttress for Christianity in Western Asia against the inroads of Islam. For a time Constantinople itself was in Latin hands, whereas in lieu of the Greek empire in Asia Minor there were two feeble Christian states with headquarters at Nicaea and Trebizond respectively. Thirdly, there had just arisen in Egypt in the Mamluk Sultanate a power capable of dealing with both Crusaders and Mongols; the first were speedily annihilated, the second checked and gradually rendered harmless, while the ordinary dissensions which disintegrate hastily improvised empires were also doing their work. Moreover, the Mongols, though unequalled as devastators, displayed in the Nearer East at any rate little capacity for empire-building. The possibility of the rise of an Islamic empire in south-east Europe and the contiguous parts of Asia was due to these circumstances.

The son of Ertogrul, chief-tain of the Kai, was Othman, whose name indicates that his father was a Moslem and, indeed, of the Sunni sect; the line of sovereigns which he founded is called by the Islamic historians *Banu Othman*, "sons of Othman," pronounced by the Turks *Osman*, whereas our form *Ottoman* comes from the Italian writers who made the name known to Latin Europe. He was employed by his Seljuk masters to raid the Greek cities which lay to the west of their dominions, and of these raids notice is taken in the contemporary



Photo by]

[Levy frères.

## TURKISH CAVALRY FORDING A RIVER.

The Turks have inherited fine horsemanship from their ancestors, and the Turkish army includes some very efficient cavalry regiments. These comprise cavalry of the guard, hussars and lancers, making over two hundred squadrons in all.



Byzantine chronicles. The biographies which we possess of this Osman are largely mythical, being embellished by flatterers anxious to please their royal masters. It is clear, however, that he possessed considerable ability both as a warrior and organizer, and by a succession of successful raids on the Greek towns which lay to the west of the Seljuk possessions established a state which he proceeded to govern with ability. His first enterprise of importance ended with the capture of the fortress known as *Karaja Hissar*, of which the ruins are still shown at about an hour's ride from Eski-Shehr, a station on the Anatolian Railway, famous for its exports of meerschaum. Another early conquest was the fortress called Bilejik, but by the Byzantine chroniclers Belocoma, which occupies a commanding position. The official Ottoman chronicle represents him as profiting by the mutual jealousies of the Christian governors, who betrayed each other's plans to him, and,



*Painted specially for this work*

#### REVOLT OF THE ROYAL GUARD AT DAMASCUS.

*[By J. H. Valda.]*

When Turkestan became part of the Islamic empire the Moslems obtained from the nomad tribes youths who were trained in the service of the Royal Guard at Damascus. About 800 this guard became powerful enough to rise in revolt and assume the right to elect the head of the state.

in consequence, were unable to combine against him effectively, while they could gain no support from the central authority. It further presents him as an ardent champion of Islam, who earned the title, "Champion of the Sacred War," by his determination to carry out the original programme of Islam, which was to make that system dominate all others. It seems clear, nevertheless, that he inaugurated that tolerance of other systems which has characterized Ottoman government generally, and the towns which he took speedily found themselves in enjoyment of security both internal and external. The accession of inhabitants produced by this security, and especially the immigration of fighting men are alleged as the causes which rendered constant raiding necessary; this was the only way in which work and pay could be found for the constantly increasing army. After many years of successful enterprises in this style Othman was able to declare himself independent of his former masters and assume the title Sultan on his own account. The date of this event is usually given as 1299.



*From the painting*

#### GODFREY DE BOUILLON AT THE SIEGE OF JERUSALEM.

*[By C. Verlet.]*

Jerusalem was besieged and captured by the Crusaders in 1099. The siege lasted exactly forty days, and the Christian forces numbered about five hundred thousand men. Towers built on movable platforms and filled with soldiers were brought up close to the city; then, after battering the walls with their cannon, the Crusaders delivered one combined, terrific assault, and took Jerusalem by storm. Godfrey de Bouillon, a notable Crusader, took a prominent part in the siege, his division being the first to enter when the city was captured. De Bouillon was elected ruler of Jerusalem, but he refused to assume the title of king.

The royal family thus founded continued for many centuries to produce able generals and statesmen. For many years Othman was aided in his wars by his son Orkhan, who succeeded him as Sultan ; about



*From the painting]*

#### THE CAPTURE OF TYRE.

*[By Aliense,*

In 1124 the Christians under Baldwin II., King of Jerusalem, besieged Tyre, which was at that time in possession of the infidels. The Tyrians held out against assault and famine for four months, but the aid which was expected from Egypt and Damascus was not forthcoming. On the 25th June, 1124, the garrison capitulated and marched out; the banners of the kingdom of Jerusalem, the republic of Venice and the Count of Tripolis were hoisted on the towers, and Tyre once more became Christian.

the time of the death of the former (1326) the latter obtained possession of Brusa, which was made the capital of the new state, and is still regarded as a sacred city by the Ottomans. Under Orkhan a coinage was instituted, and according to some authorities the historic corps called *Janissaries* was formed. This

name, which means *New Troop*, was applied to a body recruited by levying a tribute of Christian children, who were then trained as Moslem soldiers.

Orkhan, while engaged in organizing the growing kingdom, also pursued a career of conquest. He got possession of Nicomedia and Nicaea, Byzantine cities of great importance, and penetrated both eastward and southward in Asia Minor. Quite late in his reign (1356) he took the step, fraught with great consequences, of sending a force across the narrow strait which separates Asia from Europe and seizing a number of places on the Byzantine coast. This was the commencement of the Turkish occupation of south-eastern Europe.

The first of these places was Tzympe (now called Chemenlik), not far from Gallipoli, seized, it is said,



*Painted specially for this work*

[By J. H. Valda.]

## INTERVIEW OF A GREEK GOVERNOR WITH OSMAN.

The Turkish chieftain Osman possessed great ability both as a warrior and organizer, and made many successful raids on Greek towns lying to the west of the Seljuk territory. According to tradition, Osman profited by the mutual jealousies of the Christian governors, who betrayed each other's plans to him.

by a force of eighty men, sent across the strait in rafts made of tree-trunks bound together with straps of oxhide. Their occupation was aided by the civil war then raging in the empire, and the Ottoman leader was even requested to land a larger force to help the party in possession of Constantinople against the Serbian and Bulgarian confederates of the rebels. This request was granted and the result of the expedition attained; but the Ottomans declined to abandon the territory which they had seized, to which in the following year Gallipoli itself was added. The Ottoman invasion then spread rapidly, and the system of ancient statecraft, transplantation of population, was introduced; whole families were compelled to migrate from Asia and settle in the newly-acquired territory, while eminent residents were removed from Europe to Asia. It seems clear that even at this early period of Ottoman history the aim of the Sultans was to possess themselves of the relics of the Byzantine empire, and make Constantinople their capital. Moreover, some of the methods which in quite recent times have characterized

Ottoman diplomacy, dilatoriness and equivocation, appear to have been practised in dealing with the Byzantine remonstrances over these acts of aggression and their attempts to arrange evacuation on friendly terms. The prince who first established Ottoman power in Europe was Orkhan's son Sulaiman, who died in 1358, never having himself come to the throne. His brother, Murad I., who succeeded his father in the following year, continued with great energy the policy of European aggression. In 1361 Adrianople was taken, and in the following year Philippopolis; the former was soon

of Serbia was compelled to sue for peace, which he only obtained on condition of becoming tributary. The Bulgarian king, who had offered less resistance, obtained somewhat more favourable terms; yet as early as 1389 all Bulgaria was declared an Ottoman province.

Before this, in 1370, an endeavour had been made by the Byzantine emperor, John Palaeologus to rouse the Catholic powers of Central and Western Europe to the danger which threatened all Christendom. He himself visited Venice, Paris and Rome, but failed to obtain any assistance, the Christian powers

made the metropolis of the empire.

The Byzantine emperor was himself quite unable to stem this tide; the fall of Philippopolis, however, led to the formation of a "Balkan Confederation," i.e., a union of the states Serbia, Bosnia and Wallachia with Hungary, with the view of meeting the Ottoman menace. It would appear that want of discipline led to the frustration of their efforts; they were defeated in battle outside Adrianople, and the forces of Murad advanced along the line of the Maritza to Samakov. In 1375 Nish, in Serbia, was taken by him after a siege of twenty-five days, and the king



*From the painting*

MOHAMMED II.

*[By G. Bellini.]*

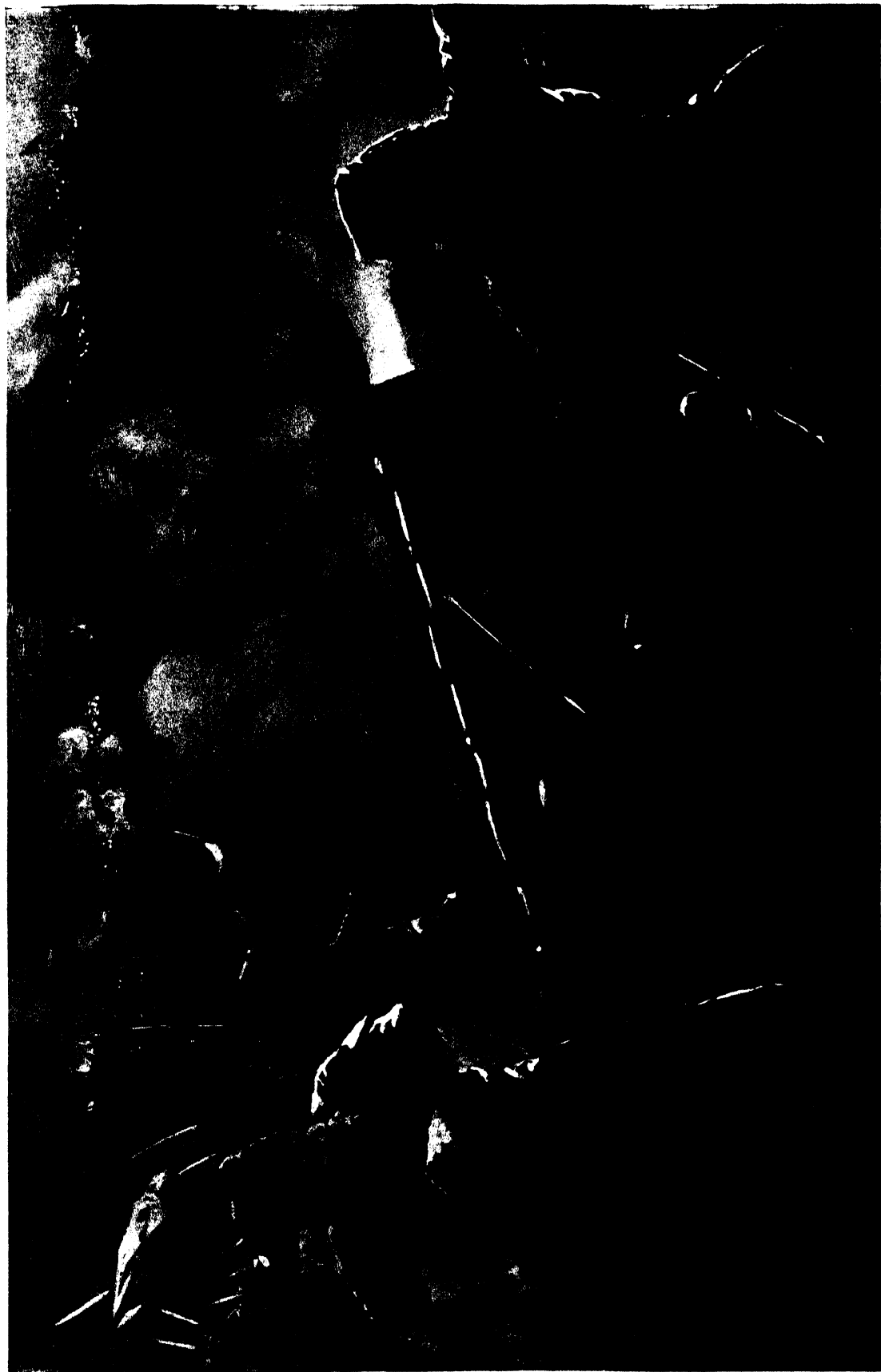
Mohammed II. (1430-1481) became Sultan of Turkey in 1451. He extinguished the Byzantine empire by the capture of Constantinople in 1453, thus giving the Turks the command of the Bosphorus. He annexed most of Serbia, all Greece, and many of the Aegean islands, and took Otranto in Italy.



Ivory pen-case and ink-horn, inlaid with rosettes of coloured ivory and brass. Turkish, eighteenth century. (Victoria and Albert Museum.)



Ebony writing-case, containing ink-well. Sides and lid veneered with ivory carved with floral decorations. Turkish, eighteenth century (Victoria and Albert Museum.)



*Painted specially for this work*

#### SIEGE OF CONSTANTINOPLE BY THE TURKS.

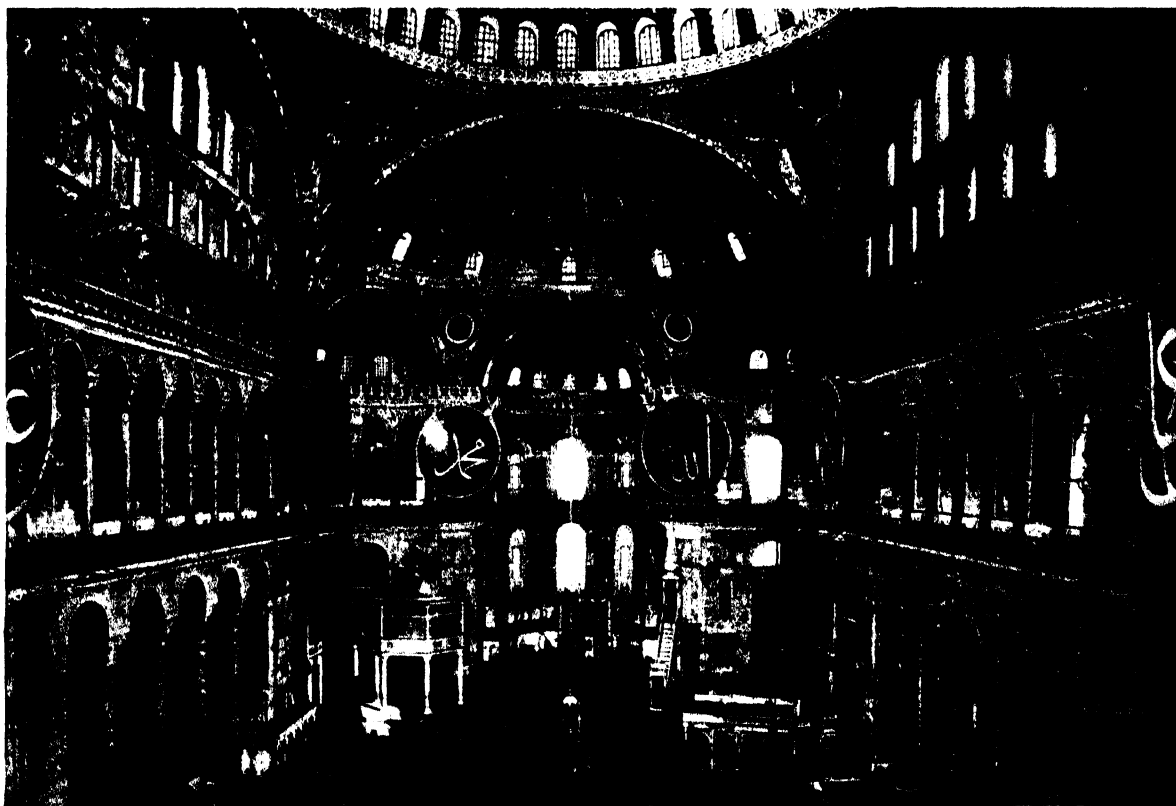
*[By J. H. Valda.]*

The great ambition of Mohammed was the overthrow of the Byzantine empire, and the Turks employed the autumn and winter of 1452 in making great preparations for the siege of Constantinople. Mohammed assembled the best troops of his empire at Adrianople, and got together a formidable collection of artillery. The actual siege began in April, 1453, but at first little headway could be made even by the best Turkish artillery against the immensely strong fortifications of the city. On the 29th of May a general assault was made, and Constantinople was carried by storm in spite of the efforts of Constantine, who died fighting bravely amidst the enemy.

being all too much occupied with their own internal struggles. In consequence of this failure he was himself on his return compelled to accept the position of vassal to the conqueror.

While the Ottoman empire was fast developing in Europe, it was enjoying no less success in Asia, where the original conquests of Osman were bounded by petty states which had sprung up after the fall of the Seljuks. A confederation of these against Murad proved as impotent as that which he had defeated in the Balkans. He made great acquisitions of territory in Asia Minor by marriage contracts and by actual purchase. In the battle of Conia, 1386, the helplessness of the most important of the neighbouring states, Caramania, when confronted with an Ottoman army, was demonstrated.

Murad met his end at the battle of Kossovo, 1389. An army had been got together by the efforts of the kings of Serbia and Bosnia, and the rulers of Wallachia, Albania and Herzegovina, with the aim

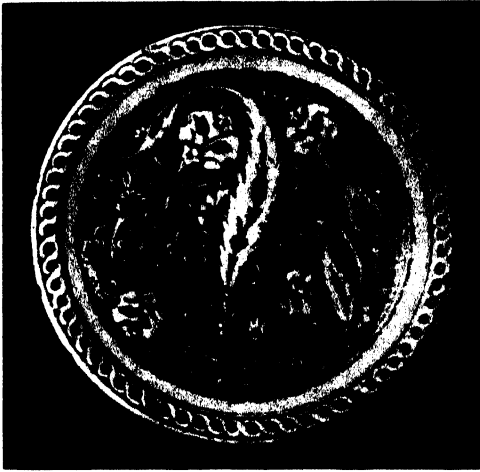


THE MOSQUE OF ST. SOFIA, CONSTANTINOPLE.

Justinian I., Emperor of Constantinople, built St. Sofia, which was commenced in 532 and took five years to complete. The mosque is built of brick, and internally the walls are covered with thin slabs of marble inlaid with some very fine mosaic work. St. Sofia represents all that is best in Byzantine art, and is one of the most beautiful buildings in the world.

of expelling the Ottomans from Europe; and the army which Murad was able to bring against them is said to have been numerically inferior, but to have won the day partly by superior organization, but mainly by the greater mobility of the light-armed troops who fought the mail-clad Christians.

The next Sultan, like his predecessors, was also a mighty warrior, Bayazid I., named *The Thunderbolt*. This prince inaugurated the practice, which long remained a principle of Ottoman statecraft, that the Sultan on his accession should put to death any members of his own family who might possibly dispute the succession; a practice strangely at variance with the sanctity of the family tie, which Islam on the whole recognizes. Bayazid was invited to interfere in family disputes between the Byzantine emperor and his sons, and not only settled them by force of arms, but imposed on the emperor a money-tribute, and further compelled him to furnish Byzantine troops for the Ottoman army; which were presently employed to reduce the last free Greek community remaining in Asia, the state of Philadelphia, which had



been promised security in the prophecy of the Apocalypse. Bayazid further built a fleet with which he attacked the Greek islands, and is said to have even invaded the mainland of Greece. It is not clear why he failed



to attempt the storming of Constantinople; he, however, isolated the city, and reduced the inhabitants to destitution by preventing imports of all kinds.

While the taking of Constantinople was somehow left for the last, Bayazid continued his aggression northward and westward, and in 1391 incorporated Wallachia in his empire. All the Bulgarian fortresses on the Danube were occupied, and the Bulgarian king compelled to deliver himself up. In 1392 King Sigismund of Hungary endeavoured by a raid into Bulgaria to expel the Ottomans from some of these fortresses, but he had no permanent success. Like the Byzantine sovereign, he appealed for



help to the Western powers, and in 1396 something analogous to a crusade against the Ottomans was preached in Germany and France. In both countries knights offered themselves for service, and a European army, of which the numbers are variously assessed at from sixty thousand to over one hundred thousand, assembled at the Hungarian capital Buda, hoping to achieve a triumph for Christendom. They crossed the Danube and obtained certain successes, but came to a stand before the walls of Nicopolis, of which they commenced the siege. Bayazid hastened to raise the siege after it had lasted seventeen days, and, it is said, surprised the besiegers, who were badly



served by their scouts. The battle which ensued began favourably for the Christians, but ended in a rout, owing, it would seem, to want of discipline and indifferent leading. Moreover, the Crusaders are charged



FIVE EXAMPLES OF TURKISH POTTERY.

Dishes and vase of earthenware, painted in colours and enamelled with a white siliceous glaze. (Victoria and Albert Museum)



with rejecting the advice of the Hungarian king, who had already some experience of Ottoman warfare. The serious losses which the Ottoman army underwent in the battle were avenged after it had ended by the wholesale slaughter of prisoners ; some of the more distinguished of whom were, however, spared in the hope of obtaining large ransoms ; and the true extent of the disaster was first made known in Western Europe by the messengers sent to make arrangements for this ransoming.

In September, 1400, the Byzantine emperor, again visiting Western Europe in the hope of persuading the Catholic princes of the Ottoman danger, reached England. Meanwhile Bayazid, who had been interrupted in the conquest of Greece proper by the events which rendered his presence necessary at Nicopolis, had sent expeditions which subjugated the country from Thessaly to the Peloponnesus. These new



*From the painting]*

#### THE BATTLE OF LEPANTO.

*[By V. de Keyser.*

The Mediterranean states, alarmed by the aggression of the Turks, banded together against the common foe. The chief promoter of this holy league was Pope Pius V., but the republic of Venice and Philip II. of Spain supplied the bulk of the Christian forces, and at the battle of Lepanto in 1571 the allied fleets defeated the Turkish navy.

successes intimidated the petty chieftains who divided Asia Minor between them ; and on Bayazid's return to Brusa he received the submission of most of these without having even to strike a blow. Two chieftains, those of Caramania and Castemuni, showed some fight, but they were speedily overcome. It appears to have been Bayazid's method to treat the Moslem inhabitants of the territories which he coveted with the greatest consideration, whereby he rendered his rule popular, whereas his hordes showed no mercy to the Christian populations of the West.

The growing empire met with a serious disaster at the beginning of the fifteenth century, when the world-conqueror Timur restored the renown of the Mongols. The dispossessed ruler of Baghdad, Ahmed Jelair, took refuge at the court of the Ottoman Sultan, who contemptuously refused the demand of the Mongol for his delivery ; the refusal was immediately followed by a Mongol invasion and the seizure of Sivas. Bayazid hastened to meet the invader on the field of Angora, where he sustained a complete



*Invited specially for this work*

#### THE BATTLE OF LEPANTO.

The battle of Lepanto was of immense political importance. The Turkish naval power was given a blow from which it never recovered, and the aggression of the Turks in the Eastern Mediterranean was stopped. This engagement is also historically interesting, as it is the last example of an encounter on a large scale between fleets of galleys. Lepanto might also be called the last Crusade, as every noble family in Spain and Italy was represented in the Christian fleet. Volunteers came from all parts of Europe, and tradition relates that Sir Richard Grenville was among them.

[By J. H. Vailin.

defeat, July 20th, 1402, owing partly to desertions of troops belonging to recently conquered regions; he was himself taken captive and, it is said, taken about in an iron cage. The empire broke up in consequence; the various princes of Asia Minor resumed their independence, and the like happened to the European possessions of the Porte also.

In the seven years of Mohammed I.'s reign the lost provinces in Asia were recovered, and his son Murad, who succeeded, was able to launch out once more on a career of conquest. The idea of taking Constantinople, to be realized in the next reign, was prepared for in this by an assault on the smaller states which had once formed part of the Byzantine empire. Two formidable antagonists to Ottoman aggression distinguished themselves during these reigns, the Hungarian John Hun-

against Islam; the magnificent city became (and has remained till now) the metropolis of the Ottomans and, indeed, of Mohammedanism. Its capture was brought about by the irreconcilable differences between Greek and Latin Christianity; the Catholic powers would render no assistance unless the Greek Church acknowledged Papal authority, whereas the Greeks preferred religious independence even at the price of submission to the Turks. There was a brief reign of terror after the capture, but the Sultan speedily arranged a *modus vivendi*, enabling the Christian population to resume their avocations. Not only was the retention of their religion permitted them, but respect

yades, and the Albanian Scander Bey.

The heroic exploits of these commanders for a time saved Hungary and Albania; they did not, however, seriously delay the progress of the Ottoman empire, which under the energetic Mohammed II., whose reign lasted for thirty years (1451 - 1481), gained enormously both in strength and territory. The most notable of his achievements was the taking of Constantinople in 1453. This event terminated the Byzantine empire, which for eight hundred years had been the bulwark of Europe



*Painted specially for this work*

#### THE CAPTURE OF BAGHDAD.

[By J. H. Valda.]

In 1638 Murad IV., Sultan of Turkey, marched into Persia at the head of a vast Turkish army, and on the 15th November commenced to besiege Baghdad. The fortifications of the city were strong, the garrison consisted of thirty thousand men, and the Persian governor was brave and resolute. Although the Turks encountered a desperate resistance their numbers and discipline prevailed and Baghdad fell on the 24th December.



*Painted specially for this work*

*by J. H. Vaida*

#### THE RETURN OF IVAN THE TERRIBLE TO MOSCOW AFTER THE CONQUEST OF KAZAN.

In 1552 Ivan the Terrible, having raised and equipped a powerful army, commenced to subdue the rebellious Tartars. In the depth of winter Ivan led 150,000 men and 50 guns to the walls of Kazan and commenced to besiege it. The siege was long and costly, and the army, which suffered severely, was only kept in camp by the determination of Ivan. Although the Tartars heroically defended their city, Kazan was carried by assault on October 2nd.



was paid to religious foundations, and the internal organization of the community preserved, the Patriarch becoming an official of the Sultan's court.

In the same reign Serbia was finally subdued, as also Bosnia, while Herzegovina and Montenegro were rendered tributary.

The successor of Mohammed the Conqueror was a more peaceful monarch ; but under the next Sultan, Selim I. (1512-1520), the dominions of the rival Sultanate of Egypt were absorbed. The incorporation within the Ottoman empire of the smaller states which had kept these two empires apart brought them into dangerous proximity, and causes of strife easily arose. The last Mamluk Sultans are said to have lost their battles by deliberately refusing to employ European artillery ; in spite of extraordinary heroism



*From the painting]*

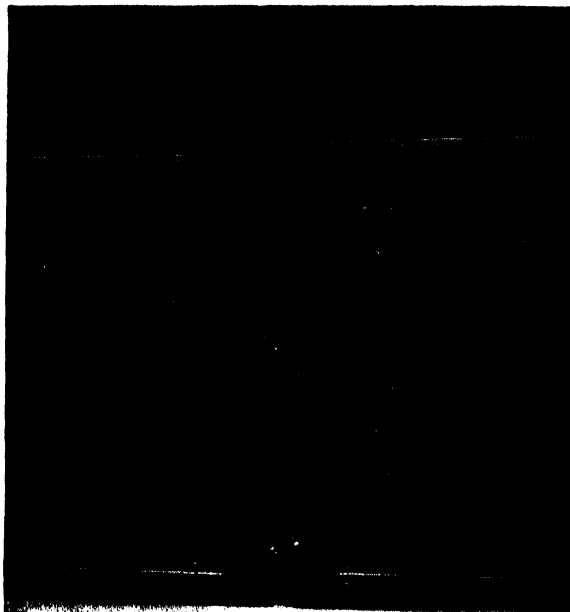
## THE SIEGE OF VIENNA.

*[By L. Russ.*

Vienna was besieged by the Turks in 1683 during the Austro-Turkish war of 1682-1699 which arose out of internal disturbances in Hungary. Mohammed IV. advanced from Belgrade with two hundred thousand men, drove back the small imperial army of Prince Charles of Lorraine and invested Vienna itself. After a two months' defence by Count Rüdiger Starhemberg the city was relieved on September 12th, 1683, by a victorious army led by John Sobieski of Poland and Prince Charles of Lorraine.

they were placed at a terrible disadvantage by this religious prejudice. The Mamluk forces were also weakened by disloyalty. The bulk of the Egyptian population were indifferent to the change of rulers, since the Mamluks were no less foreigners to them than the Ottomans. The conquest not only won for the Ottomans the rich provinces Egypt and Syria, but further put them in possession of Arabia, which had been an appanage of the Egyptian Sultans. Moreover, the last representative of the Baghdad Caliphs, who was resident in Cairo, accompanied the conqueror home to Constantinople, and is said to have willed his rights to the Ottoman Sultans, who have since then called themselves Caliphs, though by no means the whole Islamic world recognizes this title.

Ottoman might reached its zenith in the reign of Sulaiman (1520-1566). Four years before his accession Kurdistan and Mesopotamia had been incorporated in the empire ; in 1521 Belgrade fell ; in the next year Rhodes was taken, and in 1529 the Ottomans besieged Vienna. In 1535 they entered into



A door of pine and plane wood, with brass and wrought iron mounts; supposed to have been brought from a Turkish mosque. The inscription is written partly in Turkish and partly in Arabic. (Victoria & Albert Museum.)

the present war by the chief European powers and their subjects in Turkey.

Sulaiman had a reputation as a legislator as well as that which he acquired as statesman and conqueror. From his death in 1566 the empire, which at this time extended over a great part of three continents, including the states of Barbary, *i.e.*, North Africa from Algiers to Tunis, began slowly to decline. The rulers who followed him were less competent, and the danger accruing to Christendom from the presence of a great Islamic power in Europe was recognized, though the internal divisions of Christendom and the quarrels between the Christian nations prevented anything like united effort against the Turks, in spite of the efforts made by the Popes to organize crusades. The most formidable rival of the Porte for a time proved to be Venice, which long contended for the possession of the chief Mediterranean islands. The battle of Lepanto, October 7th, 1571, resulted in the destruction of an Ottoman fleet by one composed of Spanish, Venetian and Papal ships; this victory was not, however, followed by vigorous action, and in 1573 Venice accepted terms of peace which involved the cession of Cyprus.

The Asiatic operations of the Sultans' generals continued to be regularly successful, and before the sixteenth century was finished numerous Persian provinces had become Ottoman; but in Europe the tide had already begun to turn, and by the Treaty of Sitvatorok (1606) the payment of tribute by Austria to the

possession of Baghdad, and in 1538 they seized Moldavia. In 1566 they took Chios. Besides this long series of successful wars the reign of Sulaiman was noticeable for the definite entry of the Sultan into the politics of the European continent. The menace to France produced by the union of Spain, the Netherlands and Germany in the hands of Charles V., caused the French kings to look about for an ally capable of restoring the balance of power, and such an ally was found in the Ottoman Sultan, somewhat to the scandal of the rest of Christendom. One important result of this policy was the *Capitulations*, or ordinances, issued by Sulaiman in 1535, regulating the relations between French traders and residents in the Levant and the Sultan's government. The privileges thus bestowed were at the first intended for the French only, and if other Europeans desired to avail themselves thereof, they might only do so under arrangement with France. The system then inaugurated served, however, as a model for later capitulations, and hence originated the privileges enjoyed before



A Turkish tile of glazed grey earthenware, with a plan of the mosque at Mecca thereon. Above the plan in an oblong panel is a verse from the Koran. (Victoria & Albert Museum.)



*Painted specially for this work*

#### DEATH OF KÖPRİLİ THE VIRTUOUS.

Zade Mustafa Köprili, or Köprili Paşa, which means Köprili the Virtuous, was born in 1637 and became Grand Vizier to Suleiman II. in 1689, after Turkey's forces had been driven from Hungary and Poland and her ships from the Mediterranean. He inaugurated many wise reforms, particularly in finance, and made new laws for improving the condition of the Christian subjects. Köprili commanded the victorious Ottoman armies during the campaign of 1690 against the Austrians, but was killed at the battle of Salankamen in 1690 while bravely rallying his men.

*By J. H. Veldn.*





SELIM III.

Selim III. (1761-1807) became Sultan of Turkey in 1789. He unsuccessfully prosecuted the war with Russia and her ally, Austria. Innumerable reforms were introduced, but at so unsuitable a time that they cost Selim his life.

In spite of the conquest of Crete by the end of the seventeenth century the Ottoman wave had retreated to an appreciable extent. Owing to Austrian oppression Hungary had called in the aid of the Ottomans and there was a second siege of Vienna in 1683; this, however, was raised by the heroic King of Poland, John Sobieski. In 1699 peace was concluded between the German empire and the Sultan, and among the conditions were the evacuation of Hungary by the latter, whilst large concessions were made to Venice, Poland and Russia, which by the possession of Azov obtained an entry into the Mediterranean. Further, all tributes paid by European Christian powers to the Porte were abandoned. Louis XIV. endeavoured to oppose the ratification of this treaty, but failed.

From this time until our own the chief antagonist of Turkey has been Russia, which, not always successful in its wars, has steadily encroached on the area once forming Ottoman territory. In 1711 Peter the Great sustained a severe defeat, after which for the time Azov was abandoned in accordance with the Treaty of Falksen. In 1736, when the Porte was occupied with an Austrian war, Ottoman territory was invaded by a Russian army, and the war continued with varying

Porte definitely ceased. Further, in this affair the Ottoman ruler consented for the first time to treat with the European as an equal, and no longer as suzerain and grand seigneur.

In the seventeenth century the power of the Sultans was for a time reduced somewhat as had happened to that of the Caliphs of Baghdad and Egypt, owing to the usurpation of power by the Praetorians, *i.e.*, the Janissaries, who in the year 1622 went to the length of deposing the Sultan Osman II. Murad IV. (1623-1640) succeeded, however, in restoring for a time the royal authority. The great event of this century for the fortunes of the empire was the attack on Crete and its ultimate conquest. This enterprise took twenty-five years to accomplish, from 1645 to 1669; and the efforts which it involved ruined not only Venice, from whom this possession was seized, but the Ottoman Empire itself, which never recovered from the exhaustion.

For the second half of this century the affairs of the empire were administered by a distinguished family of Viziers, the Kuprulu, who in some ways anticipated the ideas of the reformers of the nineteenth century, whose aim was to unite the various nationalities and communities of which the empire consisted under the common name of Osmanli.



Photo by]

#### NAPOLEON PARDONS THE CAIRO REBELS.

[Levy frères.

When Napoleon I. landed in Egypt he conciliated the inhabitants; but after the battle of the Nile the Egyptians lost faith in the French invincibility. In 1798 a riot broke out in Cairo, which was quickly suppressed by Napoleon, who, however, graciously pardoned the rebels.



OMAR PASHA.

Omar Pasha (1807-1871), whose real name was Michael Latas, served in the Austrian army, but deserted in 1828 and embraced Mohammedanism. He was made Colonel in the Ottoman army and distinguished himself in the wars with Russia and the Balkan States.

from the beginning of the former attempts were made to assimilate that European civilization of which the superiority from a material point of view was more and more recognized. The art of printing was introduced by the Sultan Ahmad III. (1703-1730), not without opposition, and under the express condition that the Sacred Book of Islam should not be printed. Attempts were also made to introduce various Western innovations in military and naval matters. To these, indeed, attention was constantly devoted, and the practice of entrusting the reconstruction of the military system to foreign officers, of which we have heard so much in recent times, was already current in the seventeenth century. In 1770 the French Baron de Tott was commissioned to establish foundries for artillery and to organize a corps for this service; guided by this official, the Sultan (Mustafa III.) established a school for the mathematical studies connected with the marine. It does not appear that European science ever took root in the country to such an extent that the natives themselves became either inventors or experts.

As early as 1502 Great Britain had become familiar with the affairs of Turkey, King Henry VII. undertaking to maintain a corps which was to assist the Hungarians

fortune till 1739, when it was terminated by the Treaty of Belgrade. The definite superiority of the Russian power had not yet been established, and the Black Sea still remained closed. In 1764 a fresh attack on Turkey was made by the Russian Empress Catherine, and this war lasted ten years; it was concluded by the Treaty of Kainarji (1774), whereby the Russians came into possession of a number of places on the Black Sea, which they might now freely navigate, and were granted a sort of protectorate over Wallachia and Moldavia, which still remained under Turkish government; and the right of interference with the internal affairs of Turkey which was thus accorded to a foreign power was destined to be developed in various ways.

In 1787 war broke out afresh, wherein the Turks suffered a series of defeats, and the Peace of Jassy, which terminated it in 1792, left the Dniester as the boundary between the two empires. By the Peace of Adrianople (1829), which came after the war of 1828-1829, the Pruth became the boundary between the two empires in Europe; but Russia also acquired the mouths of the Danube and the upper portion of the basin of the Kur in Asia.

The Sultans of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were on the whole peaceably inclined, and



BOMBARDMENT OF KARS.

Among the minor operations of the Crimean War was the bombardment of Kars. The city was completely isolated by the Russians, who made many fierce assaults upon it. After a nine months' gallant defence, inspired by Fenwick Williams Pasha and other officers, Kars was forced to surrender in 1854.

against their powerful neighbours; more friendly relations came about in the reign of Elizabeth, who in 1578 sent an envoy to Constantinople, and claimed the help of the Porte against Spain on the ground of their common monotheism. Though these hopes were not destined to be realized, English influence gradually increased at the Ottoman court.

The Napoleonic invasion of Egypt, which, though nominally a Turkish possession, was at the end of the eighteenth century virtually independent, led to war between Turkey and France, and an alliance was formed

between the former power, Great Britain and Russia. The part played by our government in expelling the French from Egypt and restoring the country to the Ottomans is well known; but in 1807 the intrigues of Bonaparte at Constantinople led to strained relations between Turkey and Great Britain; the Dardanelles were forced by a British admiral, but the metropolis was not taken.

The dismemberment of the Ottoman empire in the nineteenth century commenced with the insurrections in Serbia, which led to the release of that country.

son, Ibrahim Pasha, nearly succeeded in reducing all Greece. The incapacity of the Turkish forces during the earlier stages of the war of independence led to the reform of the army by the energetic Sultan Mahmud IV., who in the year 1826 disbanded the Janissaries, not without having to resort to violence. He also introduced a code based on the Code Napoleon, in lieu of the primitive jurisprudence with which his countrymen had been so long satisfied.

The Crimean War, 1854-1856, brought Turkey into yet closer connection with the powers of Western Europe. It commenced by an endeavour on the part of Russia to enforce a claim to the custody of the

More interest was attached in Western Europe to the War of Greek Independence, 1820-1832. The movement which led to the emancipation of the Hellenes is said to have commenced with the foundation of a secret society, organized at first in Vienna, which aimed at uniting and arming the various elements constituting the scattered Greek nation. The efforts of the insurgents met with various fortune, but, on the whole, they met with notable success until the conduct of the war was committed to the competent ruler of Egypt, Mohammed Ali, whose energetic



THE OPENING OF THE TURKISH PARLIAMENT.

The Sultan of Turkey, Mohammed V., attended the opening of the Turkish Parliament on 17th December, 1908, just after the revolution engineered by the Young Turk Party which deposed Abd al-Hamid II. and elected the present Sultan. The scene depicts the reading of the Speech from the Throne

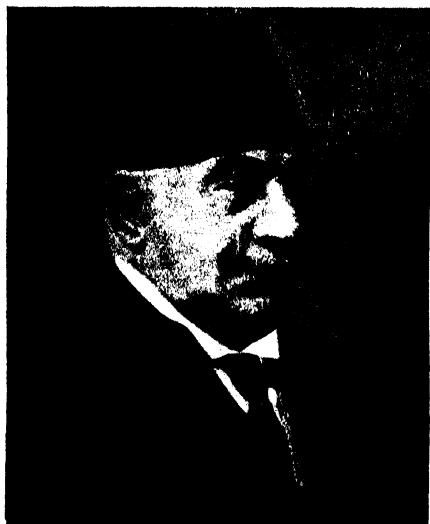


AN ENCOUNTER BETWEEN ITALIAN AND TURKISH OUTPOSTS: TURCO-ITALIAN WAR.

Although the Turks had withdrawn from Tripoli into the interior, it was soon evident to the Italians that they were not to be left in peaceful possession of the town. On 9th October, 1911, the Turkish troops, emerging from the desert, made an attack on the Italian naval outpost line by moonlight. The Italians briskly returned the enemy's fire, and shells from the Italian warships in the harbour soon rendered the Turkish position untenable.

Christian sanctuaries in the Ottoman empire; a right which since the establishment of the Ottoman empire in Europe had normally belonged to France. In return for armed assistance of France and Great Britain against Russia the Porte promised to introduce yet further reforms, whereby the religious inequalities which belonged to the Islamic system should be abrogated. Doubtless some progress was made in this direction, but the difficulties which these reforms encountered were very great.

In the year 1876 a scheme of constitutional government, prepared by Midhat Pasha, revolution which brought about the restoration of the constitution of 1876. The fear that Herzegovina and Bosnia would claim to send deputies to the Turkish parliament led to the annexation of those provinces by Austria; and the Turkish cabinet, remembering the fate of the former constitution in consequence of the Russian war, were unable to reply to Austria with vigorous measures; a demonstration of weakness, which encouraged Italy in 1911 to seize Tripoli, and the further demonstration of Turkish weakness in the war which ensued brought about the confederation of the Balkan States, which in the following years by a series of victories deprived the Ottoman empire of its main possessions in Europe, though Constantinople remained, and Adrianople which had been taken, was recovered.



NAZIM PASHA.

Nazim Pasha was born at Constantinople in 1848. After years of military activity and political intrigue he was appointed Minister of War to the Turkish Army in 1912, but was assassinated in the following year at Constantinople.



SULTAN MAHOMMED V.

Mahommed Reşad Effendi was born on the 3rd November, 1844, and on the deposition of Abd al-Hamid II. in 1909 was elected by the National Assembly as Sultan Mahommed V. of Turkey.

The intrigues which afterwards led to the predominance of German influence with the Turkish cabinet, which without any provocation abandoned its neutrality in the present war, are as yet imperfectly understood. There is strong reason for believing that this step will prove to have been fatal to the Ottoman empire, and that after this war the name of Turkey will disappear from the map.



ENVER PASHA.

Enver Pasha is one of the leaders of the Young Turk Party, and, possessing enormous influence in Turkish politics, has been responsible for the turbulent state of Turkey during the last ten years. In January, 1914, he was appointed Minister for War.

and the outcome of long deliberation, was on the accession of the Sultan Abd al-Hamid II. proclaimed, and a parliament summoned. The outbreak of a war with Russia led to its suspension, and the termination of this war left the provinces Bosnia and Herzegovina in Austrian occupation, while Bulgaria became virtually independent. During Abd al-Hamid's reign the interference of the European powers with Turkish affairs became normal, and in 1908 the apprehension of such interference for the settlement of disorders in Macedonia was the occasion for the outbreak of the at first bloodless

# DATES OF RUSSIAN HISTORY

PERIOD.	DATE	CHIEF EVENTS.
Dnieper Period; from the establishment of Varangian rule to the Mongol invasion.	850	Approximate date of the beginning of the rule of the Varangian princes, Rurik, Sineus and Truvor. The traditional date, 862, is now known to be wrong.
	860	Askold and Dir, rulers of Kiev, attack Constantinople.
	907	Oleg, reigning during the minority of Igor, son of Rurik, leads an expedition against Constantinople and makes a commercial treaty with the Greeks. He had previously transferred his capital from Novgorod to Kiev, where he slew Askold and Dir.
	941	Igor's first expedition against Constantinople. [the Greeks.]
	944	Igor's second expedition against Constantinople results in the conclusion of a commercial treaty with
	945	Igor killed by the Drevlians, a Slavonic tribe. His wife, Olga, becomes Regent for her son, Sviatoslav.
	957	Traditional date of the baptism of St. Olga, widow of Igor.
	968	Sviatoslav leads an army against the Bulgarians of the Danube
	988	Vladimir I., grandson of Igor, embraces Christianity, which becomes the religion of Rus.
	1019	Yaroslav the Wise becomes Prince of Kiev. He defeats the Pechenegs in 1036.
	1049	Anne, daughter of Yaroslav, marries Henry I. of France and is crowned at Rheims.
	1054	Death of Yaroslav. Henceforth perpetual subdivision of territory between his descendants and civil and foreign wars.
	1113	Vladimir Monomach, who is said to have married Gytha, daughter of Harold of England, reigns in Kiev.
	1147	First mention of Moscow.
	1169	Andrew Bogoliubski, Prince of Suzdal, takes Kiev.
	1185	Expedition of Northern Princes against the Polovtsi, a people of Turkish origin, who infested the Dnieper trade-route between Kiev and the Black Sea.
	1198	Union of Galicia with the principality of Volhynia.
	1221	Yuri, Prince of Suzdal, founds Nijni-Novgorod.
Upper Volga Period. Rus under Mongol domination.	1224	Invasion of the Tartar Mongols. Russians defeated on the river Kalka.
	1237-1238	Mongols under Baty Khan devastate Northern Rus.
	1240	Tartars sack Kiev. St. Alexander Nevsky defeats Swedes on the Neva.
	1242	Baty Khan makes Sarai, on the Caspian, the capital of the Golden Horde.
	1244	St. Alexander Nevsky defeats the Teutonic Knights in the Battle of the Ice on Lake Peipus.
	1263	Daniel, son of St. Alexander Nevsky, becomes Prince of Moscow, then the appanage of a junior prince.
	1299	Metropolitan of Kiev transfers his see to Vladimir.
	1303	Yuri Danilovitch becomes Prince of Moscow. He marries a Tartar princess in 1313.
	1328	Under Ivan I., Kalita, Moscow acquires the Suzerain throne of Rus by favour of the Khan of the Golden Horde. Moscow becomes the Metropolitan's see.
	1340	Simeon Ivanovitch, the Proud, becomes Prince of Moscow [of Northern Rus.]
	1353	Ivan II., brother of Simeon the Proud, succeeds him. He acquires judicial authority over the princes
	1359	Dmitri, Prince of Suzdal, becomes Grand Prince and is blessed by St. Alexis Metropolitan of Moscow.
	1362	Dmitri Donskoi, son of Ivan II., becomes Grand Prince of Moscow by favour of Murut, Khan of the Golden Horde.
	1380	United forces of Northern Rus, under Dmitri Donskoi, defeat Tartars on the plain of Kulikovo.
	1382	Moscow burnt by the Tartars.
	1389	Vassili I. Dmitrievitch. One of his daughters marries the Emperor, John Palaeologus.
	1425-1462	Vassili II., Grand Duke of Moscow. He rejects the decisions of the Council of Florence (1439).
The Muscovite Empire.	1462-1503	Ivan III., the Great, Grand Prince of Moscow. Yaroslav, Rostov and Novgorod united to Moscow.
	1472	Marriage of Ivan III. with Sophia Palaeologus, niece of last Byzantine Emperor.
	1480	Dispersion of the Golden Horde.
	1505-1533	Vassili III. Unification of Rus under the Muscovite sceptre continues.
	1510	Pskov, the last Russian republic, is annexed by Moscow.
	1521	Riazan and Novgorod Sieverski, the last independent principalities, annexed by Moscow
	1533	Helena Glinska, wife of Vassili III., becomes Regent for her son, Ivan IV.
	1547	Coronation of Ivan IV., the Terrible. He assumes the title of Tsar (Cesar).
	1552	Tartar State of Kazan annexed.
	1553	Richard Chancellor arrives in Russia and establishes commercial relations with England
The Times of Trouble.	1556	Astrakhan annexed.
	1563	A printing-press is set up in Moscow.
	1570	Ivan asks the hand of Elizabeth of England in marriage
	1581	Ivan the Terrible kills his son, Ivan, in a fit of passion.
	1582	Beginning of the conquest of Siberia by the Stroganov family and a band of Cossacks.
	1584	Death of Ivan and accession of Feodor I., last ruler of the dynasty of Rurik.
	1580	Russian Church becomes autonomous by establishment of Patriarchate of Moscow.
	1591	Murder of Dmitri, who was expected to succeed Feodor.
	1598	Death of Feodor and election of Boris Godunov as Tsar.
	1601-1604	Russia is devastated by famine and pestilence.
	1604	False Dmitri invades Muscovy.
	1605	The False Dmitri ascends the throne.
	1606	Dmitri is assassinated and Vassili Shuiski proclaimed Tsar.
	1608	The second False Dmitri defeats the Tsar's army near Volkhov.
The Moscow Period of the Romanov dynasty.	1609	The Poles invade Russia and lay siege to Smolensk.
	1610	Shuiski dethroned. Wladislav, son of the King of Poland, becomes Tsar
	1611	Patriotic revolt under Minin and Prince Pozharski.
	1612	Wladislav and the Poles driven out of Moscow.
	1613	Michael Romanov, founder of the present dynasty, elected Tsar.
	1617	Wladislav invades Muscovy and is repulsed.
	1618	Armistice between the Russians and Poles concluded for fourteen years. The Tsar abandons his claim to Tchernigov, Smolensk and Livonia.
	1634	Peace of Polianovka by which the King of Poland abandons his claim to the throne of Moscow.
	1645	Accession of Alexis Mikhailovitch. During his reign there are wars with Sweden, Poland and Turkey.
	1654	Correction of the liturgical books. This leads to a schism in the Russian Church.
The Petrograd Period.	1666	Letter post introduced.
	1667	Peace of Andrussov made with Poland, whereby Russia acquires Little Russia, east of the Dnieper, including Smolensk and Kiev.
	1672	Birth of Peter the Great.
	1676	Accession of Feodor Alexeievitch.
	1682-1689	Regency of the Tsarevna Sophia Alexeievna for Ivan V. and Peter I., who reign together.
	1689	Peter ousts Sophia and begins to rule.
	1696	Peter takes Azov. Death of Ivan V.
	1697-1698	Peter visits Germany, Holland, England and Austria.
	1698	Revolt of the Streltzi suppressed with great cruelty.
	1699	Coalition with Denmark and Poland against Charles XII. of Sweden. [ordered.] Adoption of the Western Calendar
	1700	Beginning of the Great Northern War. Death of Adrian, the last Patriarch.
	1701	Ukase issued forbidding the wearing of Muscovite dress.
	1702	Peter takes the fortress of Nöteborg from the Swedes and renames it Schlüsselburg.
	1703	Swedes driven from the Neva. Foundation of Petrograd.
	1704	Narva and Dorpat (Yuriev) taken.
	1705	First books printed in the "civil script" or simplified alphabet.
	1709	Victory over the Swedes at Poltava.

# DATES OF RUSSIAN HISTORY—continued

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
The Petrograd Period—continued.	1713	Petrograd becomes the capital.
	1718	Death of the Tsarevitch Alexis.
	1721	Great Northern War ends with the Peace of Nystad, whereby Russia acquires Esthonia and Livonia, and the east of Finland, including Viborg. In this year Peter assumes the title of Emperor and establishes the Holy Synod to govern the Church.
	1722-1723	War with Persia, whereby Russia acquires territory bordering the Caspian.
	1725	Accession of Catharine I., wife of Peter, who governs under the influence of Menshikov.
	1727	Accession of Peter II., Alexeievitch, a minor.
	1730	Accession of Anna Ivanovna, who governs under the influence of Biren and Marshal Münnich.
	1733-1735	War of the Polish Succession.
	1739	Peace of Belgrade, ending war with Turkey, whereby Azov, lost in 1711, is regained.
	1740	Accession of Ivan VI., an infant. His mother, Anna Leopoldovna, becomes Regent.
	1741	Elizabeth Petrovna seizes the throne and Ivan is deposed.
	1741-1743	War with Sweden, ended by the Peace of Abo.
	1755	Foundation of the University of Moscow.
	1756	Alliance with Austria and France against Prussia. First public theatre opened in Petrograd.
	1757	Battle of Jägersdorf, in which Apraxin defeats the Prussians.
	1760	Berlin taken by the Russians.
	1762	Accession of Peter III., who makes an alliance with Prussia. He is dethroned after reigning five months and succeeded by his wife, Catharine II.
	1764	Confiscation of church lands. Ivan VI. is murdered in the fortress of Schlüsselburg.
	1768	Turkey declares war on Russia.
	1770	Turkish fleet destroyed by Russians at Chesmé.
	1771	Russians occupy the Crimea. Outbreak of plague at Moscow.
	1772	First Partition of Poland. (By this and subsequent partitions in 1793 and 1795 Russia acquires vast [territories].)
	1773	Insurrection of Pugachev.
	1774	Peace of Kutchuk-Kainardji with Turkey.
	1775	The Empire is divided into fifty governments. The republic of the Zaporog Cossacks is dissolved.
	1787	Russia and Austria declare war on Turkey.
	1788	War between Russia and Sweden, ended two years later by Peace of Värälä.
	1792	Treaty of Jassy, whereby Russia acquires territory from Turkey.
	1795	Duchy of Courland annexed by Russia.
	1796	Death of Catharine the Great. Accession of Paul Petrovitch.
	1799	Suvorov's campaign in Italy. He is driven out of Switzerland.
	1801	Assassination of Paul. Accession of his son, Alexander I.
	1805	Austro-Russian army defeated by Napoleon at Austerlitz.
	1807	Treaty of Tilsit between Russia and France.
	1809	Peace of Fredrikshamn ends the war begun the previous year with Sweden and gives Russia all Finland.
	1812	Treaty of Bucharest ends war begun in 1806 with Turkey and gives Bessarabia to Russia. Napoleon's invasion of Russia. September: battle of Borodino, Napoleon enters Moscow, the burning of Moscow. October: French evacuate Moscow. November: the crossing of the Berezina.
	1815	Duchy of Warsaw annexed to Russia.
	1816-1818	Abolition of serfdom in the Baltic Provinces.
	1821	Birth of Feodor Dostolevski, the writer. (Died 1881.)
	1825	Accession of Nicholas I., third son of Paul I. Decembrist conspiracy suppressed.
	1827	Battle of Navarino, in which the Turkish fleet is destroyed by the Russians, French and English.
	1828	Birth of Leo Tolstol.
	1830-1831	Polish rebellion.
	1836	First railway built in Russia.
	1837	Alexander Pushkin, the poet (born 1799), is killed in a duel.
	1839	Persecution of the Uniate, who are registered against their will as members of the Orthodox Church.
	1841	Railway between Moscow and Petrograd begun.
	1843	Turkey declares war against Russia. (October.)
	1854	France and England declare war against Russia (March). Allied armies land in the Crimea (September). Battle of the Alma (September 5th). Siege of Sevastopol begun (October 17th). Battle of Bala-klava (October 24th). Battle of Inkerman (November 5th).
	1855	Sardinia joins the Allies (January). Death of Nicholas I. and accession of Alexander II. (March 2nd). Allies enter Sevastopol (September 8th).
	1856	Hostilities suspended (February 20th). Treaty of peace concluded at Paris (March 30th).
	1859	New treaty of commerce with Great Britain.
	1861	Emancipation of the Serfs.
	1863	Polish rebellion.
	1864	Zemstvo or local government system introduced.
	1865	Gentry of Moscow petition the Emperor to introduce constitutional government. [Feodorovna.
	1866	Marriage of the Tsarevitch Alexander with Princess Dagmar of Denmark, afterwards the Empress Marie
	1867	Alaska ceded to the United States. Government of Turkestan organized.
	1868	Samarkand and Bokhara taken.
	1870	Uniate of Poland registered against their will as Orthodox. Many imprisoned or exiled.
	1874	Universal military service introduced.
	1877-1878	War with Turkey, ended by the Treaty of San Stefano and the Congress of Berlin.
	1881	Assassination of Alexander II., who is succeeded by his son, Alexander III.
	1883	Death of Ivan Turgenev, the writer. (Born 1818.)
	1889	Franco-Russian <i>entente</i> .
	1891	Construction of the Trans-Siberian railway begun.
	1894	Accession of Nicholas II.
	1895	Franco-Russian alliance concluded.
	1897	Visit of President Faure to Russia, when the Franco-Russian alliance is first publicly acknowledged.
	1898	Russia leases Port Arthur from China.
	1901	Trans-Siberian railway opened. Sale of vodka made a State monopoly. [Apparent.
	1904	War breaks out between Russia and Japan; siege of Port Arthur begins (February). Birth of the Heir
	1905	Fall of Port Arthur (January). Battle of Mukden (February). Assassination of the Grand Duke Serge (February). Manifesto granting religious freedom (April). Battle of Tsushima (May). Zemstvo Congress at Moscow urges the Tsar to grant a constitution and receives an encouraging reply (June). Imperial Manifesto announcing a scheme for a consultative Duma is unfavourably received (August). Peace of Portsmouth with Japan concluded (August 23rd). Interior disorders, culminating in a general strike, lead to the publication of the so-called October Manifesto in which the Emperor promises constitutional government and liberty. Armed rising in Moscow suppressed (December).
	1906	First Imperial Duma opened (May) and dissolved (July). Mr. Stolypin becomes Premier (July) and sternly suppresses disorders.
	1907	New electoral law promulgated after the dissolution of a second Duma. Measure of Agrarian Reform promulgated by the Tsar (November). Third Duma opened (November). Treaty with England
	1908	Nicholas II. and Edward VII. meet on board the <i>Standart</i> at Reval (June). [in regard to Persia.
	1909	Nicholas II. and Edward VII. review the British fleet at Cowes.
	1910	The death of Leo Tolstol.
	1911	Mr. Stolypin assassinated at Kiev.
	1912	Naval bill, providing for the expenditure of £50,200,000 between 1912 and 1917, passed by the Duma.
	1914	President of the French Republic enthusiastically received at Kronstadt, where he is met by the Tsar (July 20th). News of Austria's ultimatum to Serbia received in Petrograd (July 24th). Partial mobilization of troops ordered (July 28th). Diplomatic relations with Austria suspended (July 29th). Count Pourtales, German Ambassador, demands Russian demobilization, which Mr. Sazonov refuses. Germany declares war on Russia (August 1st).

## CHAPTER XXIX

*THE RUSSIANS. By ROTHAY REYNOLDS, M.A.*

AT the dawn of Russian history the majority of the Russian Slavs occupied a long and comparatively narrow belt of land, stretching from the region of Kiev in the south to the shores of Lake Ladoga in the north. In other words, they were settled in the basin of the middle and upper Dnieper and its tributaries and in the country watered by the Lovat and the Volkhov. Hence the first period of Russian history, which ends in the early years of the thirteenth century, has been called the Dnieper period. The term is a good one for two reasons: first, because it reminds us that the progenitors of the race that is now dominant in one-sixth of the terrestrial surface of the globe were first settled in the west of the great

*From the painting]*

A SCYTHIAN WARRIOR ATTACKING HIS FOES.

*[By V. Vassnetzoff.]*

The Scythians were a people who lived in the steppes of Southern Russia about 480 B.C. This race was dispersed by other tribes coming from the East, but it has not been found possible to prove from this fact that there is any racial connection between the Russians and the Scythians.

Russian plain; secondly, because it indicates the importance of the river Dnieper, which flows through Western Russia to the Black Sea, in the development of early Russian civilization.

The primitive Russians lived in isolated homesteads, defended by earthen ramparts, which, as Professor Kluchevsky says, "were remote from one another, like islets amid a sea of forest and swamp." In the fastnesses that surrounded their homes they hunted wild animals and collected the honey and wax of wild bees, and they tilled the ground of clearings in the forest. Thus they obtained food for themselves and two important articles of commerce: fur and wax. The homes of many of them were near the rivers which had been an artery of commerce from time immemorial. Before the dawn of the Christian era the boats of Greek merchants had navigated these rivers, and brought amber from the Baltic to adorn the beauties of the Greek cities on the shores of the Black Sea. A glance at the map and a quotation from the Ancient Chronicle, our most important source of information about the early history of Russia, will make the importance of this trade-route clear. "There is a way by water from the Baltic to the Greeks by the Dnieper," writes the Kievan chronicler, "and from the source of the Dnieper one may pass to the Lovat. The Lovat flows into the great Lake Ilmen, from which the



Volkhov flows into the great Lake Ladoga. From the Baltic one may sail to Rome, and from Constantinople through the Black Sea, into which the Dnieper flows." In the eighth century, and perhaps earlier, Russian boats sailed down the water-way to the south, laden with merchandise to be sold in foreign markets.

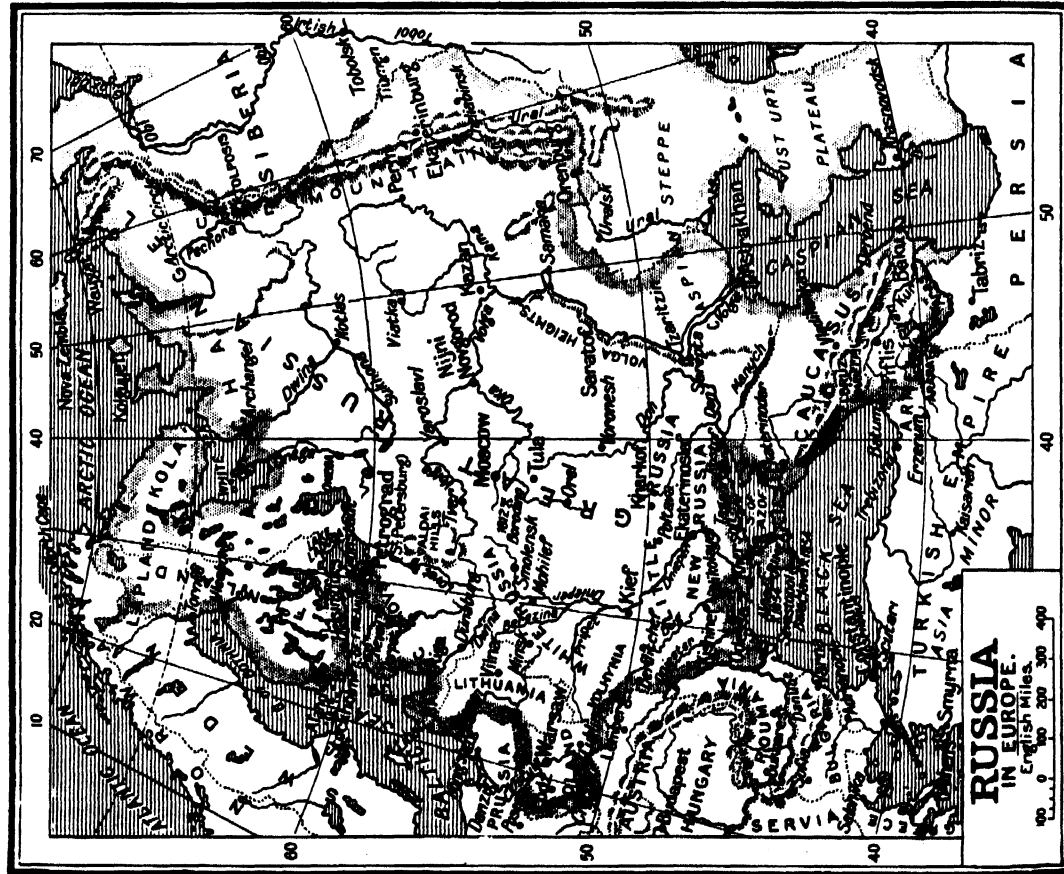
The Chozars, a people of Turkish origin, whose rulers adopted the Jewish religion, had settled in the steppes of South Russia, where their capital, Itil, became an important market, in which trade between



THE CROWN OF VLADIMIR MONOMACH.

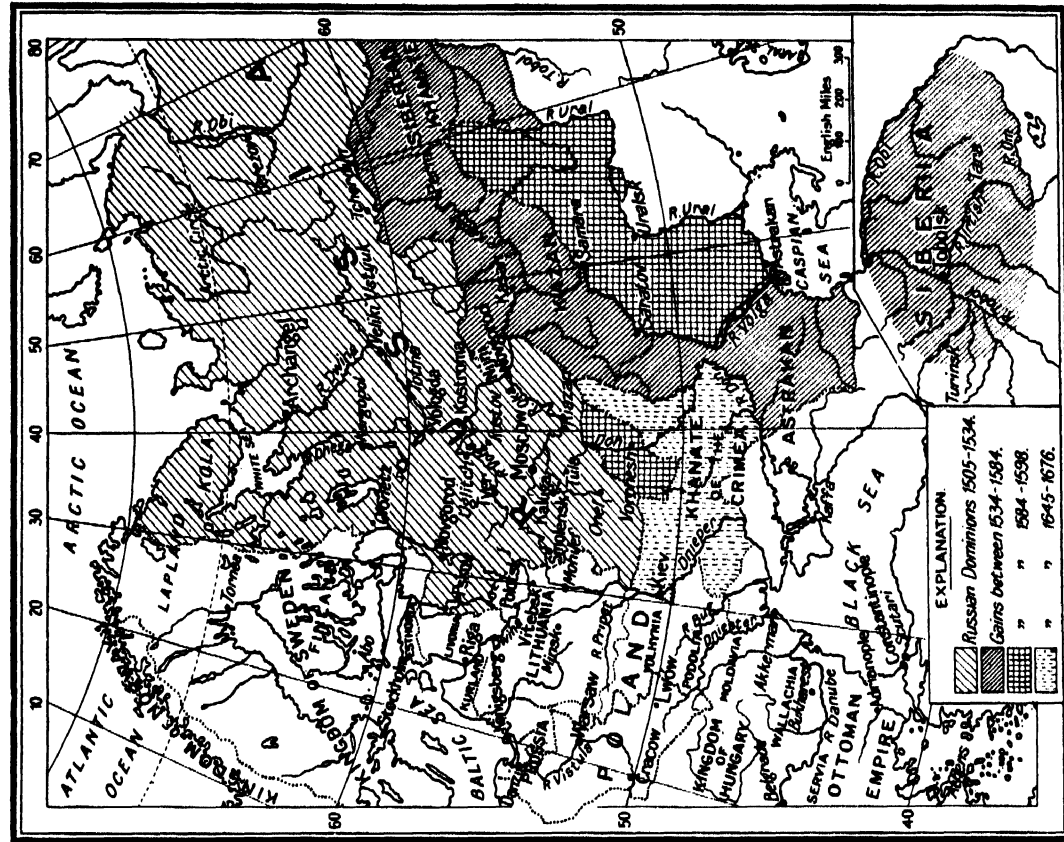
Vladimir II., or Vladimir Monomach, was Grand Prince of Kiev from 1113 till 1125. He was, for the age, a learned man, and the testament in which he narrated his achievements and gave advice to his descendants is one of the most interesting documents of medieval Russian literature. It is possible that this is the Vladimir who married Gytha, daughter of King Harold of England.

the North of Europe and the peoples of the East was carried on. These Chozars forced the Slavs who inhabited the regions bordering on their territory to pay them tribute, and, in return, they let them use the water-ways to the Black Sea and the Caspian without hindrance. We have the testimony of an Arabic writer of the ninth century that the Russians brought their goods to the Greek cities of the Black Sea and to the shores of the Caspian. And this writer states that he had seen Russian merchants in Bagdad, whither they had brought their goods on camels from the Caspian. Quantities of Arabic coins have been dug up in the Dnieper lands, and they provide evidence to show that, while Russian trade



MAP OF MODERN RUSSIA.

Although the origin of the word Russia has been disputed, it is certainly derived from the Slavonic Rus, a name first given to the Scandinavians who in the ninth century founded a settlement on the Dnieper. Russia is the general name given to European and Asiatic Russia, the two component parts of the Russian Empire. The use of the word in its most comprehensive state dates only from the expansion of the empire in the nineteenth century. In referring to the empire at an earlier period the name implies Russia in Europe, or Muscovy, as it was generally called until the eighteenth century, from Moscow the ancient capital.



MAP OF ANCIENT RUSSIA.

with the East was flourishing in the ninth century, it began much earlier, possibly as early as the end of the seventh century.

Commerce created the ancient cities of Russia. They were at first places of barter, and as export trade developed, became places for warehousing goods brought from the surrounding country. Moscow, in the heart of Russia, is not mentioned in any Russian document until the year 1147; but Kiev, Smolensk and Novgorod, on the trade-route from the Baltic to the Black Sea, were already important centres of trade when foreigners set up their

pay them tribute. The Ancient Chronicle tells us that the tribes in the region of Novgorod drove the intruders away, and then, finding that anarchy followed their expulsion, sent an embassy to beg Varangian chiefs to return. "Our country is great and rich," ran the appeal, "but there is no order in it; come and reign over us." And in reply to the summons there came in the middle of the ninth

century three brothers, Rurik, Sineus and Truvor, with their comrades. There are grounds for thinking that the three brothers were at first in the service of the Novgorodians, hired by them to defend the country from the incursions of



POPE LEO IX.

During the papacy of Leo IX, from 1049 till 1054 Michael Cerularius, Patriarch of Constantinople, quarrelled with Rome. The Russian Church was involved in a schism which ultimately led to the isolation of the Russian people from Western Europe.

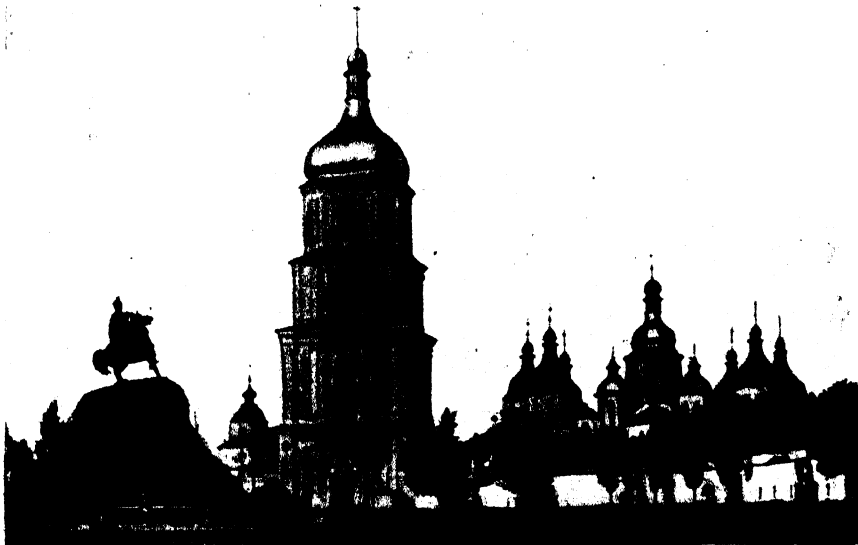
rule in Russia in the second half of the ninth century.

#### THE THREE PRINCES

Scandinavian freebooters were the scourge of Europe in the ninth century. These adventurers came to Russia, where they were at first known as Variagi or Varangians, names which appear to be derived from a Russian word meaning trader, and thus indicate the guise in which they first visited the country. The Varangians established themselves in the trading towns, and ended by becoming so powerful that they were able to force the inhabitants to

other Varangians, and that the foreigners took advantage of their position and made themselves rulers of the people, whose independence they had been employed to defend.

Rurik established himself on the shores of Lake Ladoga.



ST. SOPHIA, KIEV.

The cathedral of St. Sophia, erected in 1047-1049 by Grand Prince Yaroslav out of gratitude for his victory over the Pechenega, is surmounted by a central dome and a number of smaller ones. The exterior has suffered from seventeenth-century alterations, but the interior is architecturally very interesting.

Sineus settled on the Bieloe Ozero, or White Lake, and Truvor at Izborsk. When the two younger brothers died, Rurik became sole ruler and reigned in Novgorod. Two other Varangians, Askold and Dir, went down the Dnieper to Kiev and became rulers of that city. Thus men of Scandinavian origin founded principalities on the great trade-route.

The words Russia and Russian have been used in this narrative for the sake of convenience ; but it must be pointed out that the Russians derive their name and that of their country from their Varangian rulers, who were called Normans or Danes by western writers, but Russians by the Greeks. Their subjects were at first known by various tribal names, and in the tenth century Byzantine writers distinguish between Slavs and Russians, applying the first word to the subject race and the second to the ruling race. As the Varangian princes and their followers lost their national identity in that of the Slav people they ruled, the word " Rus " began to denote the entire people and their country. Rossiya, or as we say, Russia, is a modern form of the old name Rus, and was not used before the end of the seven-



From the painting]

[By V. Vassnetsov.

## WAR AGAINST THE POLOVTSI.

In 1055 a Turkish tribe named the Polovtsi migrated from Asia towards South Russia, but retired on being bribed. However, in 1061, this tribe made another incursion, and defeated Prince Sviatoslav, who was forced to fly from the field of battle.

teenth century. It has been held that the word Rus is derived from a Swedish place-name or from the Finnish *ruotsen*, a rower : but its history and etymology are obscure.

## THE RISE OF KIEV

When Rurik died in 879, his son, Igor, was a child, and his fourth brother, Oleg, became ruler. This prince took an army to the south, and subduing Luviech and Smolensk on his way, took possession of Kiev, after slaying Askold and Dir. He determined to remain in the southern city, which must be regarded as the centre round which the Russian State was formed. The geographical position of Kiev made the rôle of its princes peculiarly important. Traders from Novgorod, from Rostov in the region of the Upper Volga, and from the other centres of Russian commerce, passed through Kiev on their way to the Black Sea and Constantinople. The friendly Chozars were no longer able to guarantee them a safe passage down the river ; hence it became the function of the Grand Princes of Kiev to protect them from the attacks of the Pechenegs and other Turkish tribes, who had overrun the Chozar dominions and infested the steppes of Southern Russia. And the traders looked to him to see that they were justly treated in Constantinople. Askold, the first Varangian ruler of Kiev, attacked the imperial city in order to avenge the murder of Russian merchants, and Oleg led an expedition against it in 907.

Kiev, then, became the most important political and commercial centre of Russian life ; but its prince was not the sole ruler of Rus. His relatives and retainers ruled in the other cities and were called princes. The Kievan Prince was regarded as the first among equals and as the recognized leader in war. The rulers of Rus were merchants as well as soldiers. The Emperor Constantine Poryphrogenitus has left us a lively account of their commercial enterprise. The Prince of Kiev, he relates, was accustomed to leave the city in November and go through his dominions, collecting tribute, which was usually paid in kind. He returned to Kiev in April, laden with merchandise. In June his fleet of boats, together with those from Novgorod and other cities, started down the Dnieper on the way to Constantinople. The journey was difficult and dangerous. The passage of the Dnieper cataracts entailed the portage of boats, and the Pechenegs lay in wait to attack the traders. In Constantinople the merchants lived at the



THE TARTAR ATTACK ON KIEV.

In 1235 a vast army of Tartars, under their chief Batu, invaded Russia by way of the river Volga. Having conquered and laid waste several cities, whose inhabitants they massacred or tortured with indescribable brutality, the Tartars advanced against Kiev and carried it by assault, completely destroying the beautiful Desyatinnaya church.

expense of the Byzantine authorities. They exchanged their merchandise, furs, wax, honey and slaves, who were usually prisoners of war, for gold, silk, wine, and other Greek goods.

#### THE CONVERSION OF RUSSIA

The annual visits of the princes and their retinues to Constantinople had a profound effect on the development of Russian civilization. Pagan Rus was brought into touch with a highly-civilized Christian power. The settlers in the basin of the Dnieper worshipped Perun, god of thunder ; Dazhbog, god of the sun ; Volos, the Slav Apollo ; Stribog, god of the winds, and other divinities. They also worshipped their ancestors. Byzantine missionaries established themselves in Russia ; but although they did not as a rule encounter opposition, their success was small. Converts were, however, made ; and there is evidence that a Christian chapel, dedicated to St. Elias, existed in Kiev when Igor, Rurik's son, died. The widow of this prince, Olga, who reigned as regent for her son Sviatoslav, visited Constantinople, and was received at the Imperial palace. The curiosity of a tourist probably induced her to visit Saint



Photo by]

[Underwood & Underwood.

#### THE CHURCH OF VASILI BLAZHENNYI.

The fantastic Pokrovsky Cathedral, usually known as the church of Vasil Blazhennyi, stands at the lower end of the Red Square, which separates the bazaar from the Kremlin, and is one of the wonders of Moscow. It was built after the designs of an Italian architect, and its towers, all differing from each other, represent in their variety of shapes and colours pine-apples, melons, and other kinds of fruit. It was commenced by Ivan the Terrible in 1554 to commemorate the conquest of Kazan, but it was not completed until 1679. In 1812 the French plundered and desecrated the church, but it was restored during the years 1839-1845.

Sophia's and other churches. It is probable that she saw the ceremonies of Greek divine worship, which then, as to-day, surpassed those of Rome in elaboration and magnificence. However this may be, Olga, whose name is a Slav form of the Scandinavian Helga, was baptised, and, as the first Russian princess to embrace Christianity, was afterwards venerated as a saint.

It was St. Olga's grandson, Vladimir I., who made Christianity the religion of Rus. Nothing seemed more unlikely than the conversion of this prince when he began to rule in Kiev, for They reported unfavourably of the Mohammedan worship they had seen in Bulgaria. The Latin rite of the German Catholics they found lacking in beauty, but they were profoundly impressed by the glory of divine service in Constantinople. "We went to Greece," they said, "and they took us where they worship their God, and we do not know whether we were in heaven or upon earth, for there is not upon earth such sight or such beauty."

The following year, 988, Vladimir attacked a Greek city in the Crimea, and, after capturing



TROITZKAYA MONASTERY, MOSCOW.

The outer wall of this monastery, one of the richest and most important in Russia, encloses thirteen churches, a theological academy, and a number of other large buildings. Over one hundred thousand pilgrims visit the monastery annually.



CATHEDRAL OF THE ASSUMPTION, MOSCOW.

This church, in which the Tsars are crowned, was built in 1475-79, and, although repeatedly devastated by fires, has always been restored in its original form. The cathedral, whose walls and pillars are adorned with the pictures of saints, stands almost in the centre of the Kremlin

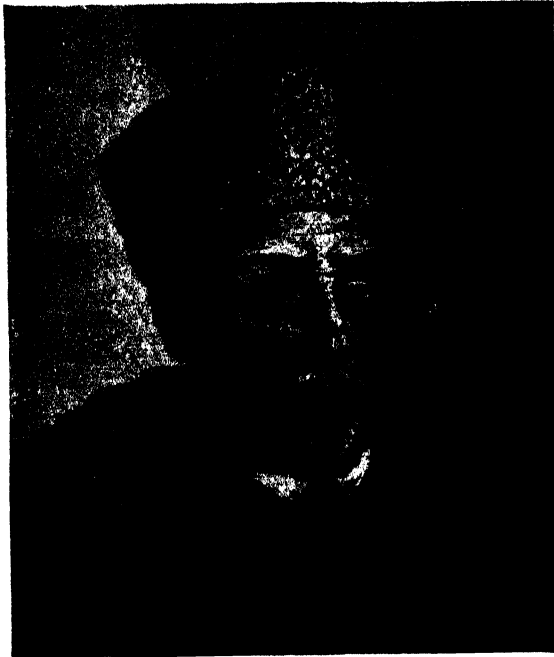
he had gained the throne by murdering his brother, Yaropolk, and he was as vicious as he was cruel. According to the Legend of the Conversion, given by the Ancient Chronicle and written more than a century after the event, Vladimir called his boyars, or nobles, together, told them that Jews, Bulgarians, Germans and Greeks had come to him and urged him to accept their religions, and asked their advice.

"If you are anxious to find out the truth," they answered, "you have men whom you can send out to see how they all serve God."

Embassies were accordingly sent abroad. Bulgaria. The Latin rite it, sent a message to the Emperors Basil and Constantine, stating that he would attack Constantinople unless they gave him their sister Anna in marriage. They replied that a Christian could not marry a pagan, but promised to give the barbaric prince their sister if he would be baptized. "Let them come with your sister to baptize me," answered Vladimir. The princess arrived with her attendants and priests and Vladimir was baptized before

leading her to the altar. When he returned to Kiev, Vladimir had the idols cut down and the image of Perun thrown into the Dnieper, and he ordered the citizens to be baptized. On an appointed day they came down to the river's banks and, standing up to their necks in the water, were baptized. "And there was joy in heaven and earth at the sight of so many saved souls," adds the Chronicler; "but the devil groaned and said, 'Alas! I am driven away. I shall no longer reign in these lands.'"

In this tale we have a popular tradition amplified by a monk, whose zeal for the edification no longer sanctioned, and the Greek missionaries gave the converts a new ideal of family life. They



IVAN THE TERRIBLE.

Ivan IV., called "The Terrible" (1530-1584), did much for the advancement of his country in arts and commerce, as well as for its extension by arms. He first assumed the title of Tsar.

of the Orthodox exceeded his regard for historical accuracy. The important point to notice is that Russia received Christianity from the Greeks, and not, as the Western nations did, from the Latins; for the adoption of the Byzantine form of Christianity instead of that of Rome had incalculable consequences, and has influenced the whole course of Russian history.

## CHRISTIAN RUSSIA

It is in the nature of things that Christianity should have affected the life of the Russian people, both socially and morally. Polygamy was



THE CROWN OF THE EMPIRE OF KAZAN.

This crown was made in 1553 by order of Ivan IV. for the last Tsar of Kazan, Edigher, who took the name of Simon when he renounced Mohammedanism and was baptized Christian



THE CROWN OF SIBERIA.

This crown belongs to the Russian regalia and denotes the Tsar's dominion over Siberia, the conquest of which was commenced in the reign of Ivan the Terrible



also endeavoured to implant in their minds a conception of sin. The laws of ancient Russia make it clear that crime was regarded from a purely material point of view. The punishment for murder and theft was usually a fine paid to the prince and a fine paid to the person who suffered loss through the crime. The amount of the fine depended on the material damage done by the criminal. The Church taught that crime was harmful to the criminal, and under the influence of the Greek clergy, punishments to deter men from crime and bring them to repentance were gradually introduced, such as imprisonment in a church-house and the deprivation of church privileges. But half a century after the introduction of Christianity we find the Bishop of Novgorod considered it needful to exhort his congregation not to kill or steal.



*From the painting]*

#### IVAN THE TERRIBLE BESIDE THE BODY OF HIS SON.

*[By V. G. Schwartz.*

During Ivan IV.'s infancy and youth his disposition, naturally headstrong, was most insidiously perverted by those around him into one of artful ferocity. Ivan's wife, Anastasia, exercised a restraining influence upon his passions, but she died in 1560. In 1580, during a fit of ungovernable fury, he struck his eldest son a blow which proved fatal.

Besides combating crime, the clergy tried to mould the Russian character to the Christian pattern. The Bishop of Novgorod, just referred to, not only warns his flock not to commit murder, but he also exhorts them to be thoughtful and merciful to strangers, to the poor, to prisoners and to their servants, to be humble and gentle. That these efforts bore fruit may be seen from the account Vladimir Monomach gave of the piety of his father, Vsevolod, who was Grand Prince of Kiev in 1078. When he rose at daybreak, this prince was wont to praise God by saying: "Thou hast made me see, O Lord Christ, and Thou hast given me this beautiful light!" And then he would pray: "Lord, add years to my life that I may repent my sins and, improving my life, may praise God." This account of Vsevolod's piety is given in Vladimir Monomach's "Instruction to his Children," a remarkable document, which shows that this prince, who ruled in Kiev from 1113 to 1125, was not only a keen soldier and hunter, but



[By A. Livertchenko.]

#### IVAN THE TERRIBLE SHOWING HIS TREASURES TO THE ENGLISH AMBASSADOR.

Ivan IV. entertained the idea of recompensing himself for his losses after the unsuccessful war with Sweden, and with this object in view sought alliances with European states. In 1582 an envoy was sent to England to endeavour to arrange an alliance with Elizabeth and at the same time to open matrimonial negotiations on behalf of the Tsar for the hand of the Queen's relative, Maria Hastings. The English would not hear of Ivan's projects, but in 1583 sent their ambassador, Sir Jerome Bowes, to Moscow, in order to obtain exemption from the duties on their exports to Russia.

From the painting]

also a man with lofty ideals. The following passage from the "Instruction" shows the spirit that animated the namesake and successor of St. Vladimir: "When you are riding and are not engaged with anybody and know no other prayer, keep on repeating to yourself: Lord have mercy upon me! for it is better to say this prayer than to have idle thoughts. Above all, forget not the destitute, but feed them according to your means. Give to the orphan. Protect the widow. Allow not the strong to oppress the people."

The Greek clergy of the Russian Church fostered learning and the arts. Schools were established. Singers from Constantinople taught the ecclesiastical chant. Greek architects erected churches. The cathedral of Saint Sophia at Kiev, built by Yaroslav the Wise (1019-1054) and decorated with mosaics and frescoes by Greek artists, still stands as evidence of the artistic influence of the Church. The cathedral of Novgorod was also built at this period. It is interesting to note that eleventh-century

frescoes at Kiev show that the Russians had adopted the fashions in dress that prevailed in Constantinople. They were to wear Byzantine clothes until the beginning of the eighteenth century.

One of the most important results of the introduction of Christianity into Russia was the entry of the Russian people into the comity of European nations, who found in Rome a centre of unity and regarded the Pope as a common father. Rome and Constantinople were in communion when Russia became Christian; and thus, although the Greek ceremonies of the churches of Kiev and Novgorod differed from the simpler Latin ceremonies of Canterbury



Photo by]

[Rothay Reynolds.

#### VIEW OF TORZHOK.

Situated on the banks of the river Tvertza, not far from the Volga, is the old and picturesque-looking town of Torzhok. Dating back to the eleventh century, when it was a commercial centre, it is now celebrated for its embroidered work in velvet and leather and for the manufacture of travelling bags.

and Rheims, the faith of the new converts was the same as that of the English and French. Membership of the same international society enabled the Varangian dynasty of Kiev to ally itself with the reigning families of the West. Yaroslav married his daughters to the King of Norway, the King of Hungary, and to Henry I. of France. His son, Vladimir Monomach, is said to have married Gytha, daughter of King Harold of England. The establishment of these connections between Russia and foreign powers leads us to suppose that the development of civilization in Russia would have been similar to that in other European countries had not an event occurred which cut off the Russian people from contact with the greater part of Christendom.

#### THE CLEAVAGE BETWEEN EAST AND WEST

This event was the excommunication of Michael Cerularius, Patriarch of Constantinople, by the Holy See in 1054. Cerularius had deliberately picked a quarrel with Rome from motives in which personal ambition was more conspicuous than ecclesiastical zeal. He closed the Latin churches of the imperial



TSARITSA IRENE.

Feodor Ivanovich became Tsar in 1584. He occupied most of his time in religious devotions, leaving the government in the hands of his ministers. In 1580 Feodor married Irene, sister of Boris Godunov.

partaken of food or drink. And prejudice increased with the passage of the centuries, intensified by rivalry with Catholic Poland. The expression of a desire to visit foreign countries was considered treasonable. And when a young nobleman actually went abroad in the middle of the seventeenth century, the Muscovites gravely discussed the advisability of punishing him by death.

In this manner Russia became isolated, and was unaffected by the religious and intellectual movements of the West. Neither the Reformation nor the Renaissance found an echo within the borders of Muscovy. And the West forgot the existence of Russia. From the day that Gytha married Vladimir Monomach there were no dealings between England and Russia until the reign of Edward VI.

## THE FEUDS OF THE PRINCES

The Greek clergy who came to Russia conferred many benefits on the Russian people, but they were

city and his clergy trampled the Holy Sacrament reserved in them under foot. The papal legates, who were sent to Constantinople, found the Patriarch determined to create a schism, and no course was open to them but to excommunicate him. On July 16th, 1054, they laid the Bull of Excommunication on the altar of Saint Sophia, now a Mohammedan mosque, and uttered the significant words: *Videat Deus et judicet*. Rome excommunicated the Patriarch; she did not excommunicate the entire Eastern Communion, and the Russians remained in communion with the Holy See for nearly a century after the breach between Cerularius and the Pope. When the Russians finally placed themselves on the side of Constantinople, a barrier was erected between them and the nations of the West. Prejudice against members of the Latin Church was fostered by the Russian clergy, and grew so strong that intercourse between them and the Russian people became difficult. The Orthodox were even ordered to destroy the vessels from which Latins had



TSARITSA OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Three Russian ladies-in-waiting attending on a Tsaritsa of the seventeenth-century period who is giving alms to a man of the poorer classes

unable to make the rulers appreciate the advantages of political unity. Yaroslav divided his territories between his five sons and one of his grandsons, and these principalities were subsequently subdivided. The history of the period that begins with the death of Yaroslav in 1054 and ends with the first Mongol invasion in 1224 is exceedingly intricate, for it deals with no less than sixty-four principalities and eighty-three civil wars. Kiev was the principality of the head of the House of Rurik and enjoyed great prestige; but its princes had neither the ability nor the power to place themselves at the head of a political confederation. The theory of the princes was that Rus was the heritage of the descendants of Rurik collectively, and they did not consider the principalities into which it was divided as permanent possessions of the princes ruling them and their direct heirs. Father was not succeeded by son, but at the death of a prince his principality passed to the member of the House of Rurik who was next to him in genealogical seniority. This system of succession, known as the rota system, involved a series of



MININ, THE BUTCHER OF NOVGOROD.

This patriotic citizen of Novgorod saved his country in 1612 by stirring up the people and urging them to combine against and drive out the foreigners, more especially the Poles, who reigned at Moscow, and to rid the country of the brigands who were devastating the land.

transferences of princes from one principality to another. As the number of descendants of Rurik increased and new principalities were carved out for them, the system of succession gave rise to endless disputes and was constantly the cause of civil war.

The attitude of the people to the princes was hardly that of subjects to sovereigns. The prince's men, or boyars, were not landowners like the feudal barons of the West, but retainers in receipt of salaries, who expected commercial advantages from the wars in which they fought. They were not bound to their masters by an oath of fealty, but passed from the service of one prince to that of another, when they thought it to their advantage to do so. The citizens of the towns showed great independence. Sometimes they refused to receive the prince whom the rota system of succession gave them as ruler. Sometimes they expelled a prince or summoned a popular member of the House of Rurik to rule them. The power of the town council became equal, in some cases greater, than that of the prince. The sturdy men of Novgorod imposed severe limitations on the power of the prince, whom they regarded as a hired military leader, and the chief control of the affairs of the city and its dependencies lay in the town council.



#### MININ EXHORTING THE CITIZENS TO DRIVE OUT THE POLES.

In 1612 Russia was in a very critical condition. The country was without a sovereign, and Moscow, the capital, was in the hands of a Polish marshal, the compatriots of whom virtually controlled a large part of the kingdom. Anarchy was rampant, and every town usurped the right to act in the name of the whole empire. When affairs were at their worst the country was saved by an obscure citizen of Nijni-Novgorod, a butcher named Kozma Minin. Minin exhorted his fellow-townsmen to drive out the Poles, and roused by his enthusiasm the citizens took up arms and accomplished this.

*From the painting]**[By F. C. Beuner.***MICHAEL FEODOROVICH.**

Michael Feodorovich (1596-1645) was the first of the Romanov Tsars. A gentle and pious man, he delegated the management of the country to honest and capable counsellors.

*From the painting]**[By F. C. Beuner.***ALEXIS MICHAELOVICH.**

Alexis Michaelovich (1629-1676) succeeded his father in 1645. He conquered almost all Lithuania, but was unfortunate in his war with Sweden. He was the father of Peter the Great.

The prosperity of the princes, boyars and city merchants was produced by the systematic oppression of the lower classes. Slaves were the most valuable article of commerce exported by Russia to foreign markets. They were prisoners taken in wars with the exterior foes of Russia or in the raids the princes made on the territories of one another. Thus the princely feuds not only distracted the country, but also lessened the number of freemen of the lower class.

Besides being oppressed by their own countrymen, the peasants of the provinces near the steppes were a prey to marauders of Turkish origin. In the time of Yaroslav (1019-1054) the Pechenegs had infested the steppes. When they were crushed by that prince, they were supplanted by the still more terrible Polovtsi. There were constant struggles between these barbarians throughout the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Vladimir Monomach, who made peace with the Polovtsi no less than nineteen times, has left a pitiful picture of the misery of the border peasantry, whose homes were burned and families enslaved by the marauders.

The inability of the princes to keep the Polovtsi in check and to protect the Dnieper route to the Black Sea, the perpetual feuds of the princes, and the exploitation of the lower classes by the capitalists of the great cities, were the causes of the decay of Kievan Rus. Life had become unbearable, and from the middle of the twelfth century a constant stream of emigrants passed from the region of the Middle Dnieper to the West, where they settled on Polish territory or in provinces, such as Galicia, which ultimately fell under Polish rule; and another stream of emigrants passed to the North-East, to the region of the Upper Volga and its tributaries. The Slavonic settlements in this part of Russia were of little importance before the middle of the twelfth century, when the emigration from Kiev began. Separated from Kiev by dense forests, sparsely inhabited by harmless Finnish savages, Rostov, Yaroslavl, Suzdal, and other cities of this region, increased in importance; while the Mother of all Russian cities, golden-throned Kiev, was gradually losing her power and prestige. In 1169 Andrew Bogoliubski, Prince of Suzdal and grandson of Vladimir Monomach, sacked Kiev, and although the city continued to have

a sentimental interest for the Russian people—the emigrants to the Upper Volga gave Kievan names to towns and villages and rivers—it was no longer the centre of gravity of Russian life. The ruin of Kiev was finally achieved by the Mongols in the thirteenth century. The city of four hundred churches had only a couple of hundred houses and a few wretched inhabitants when Plano Carpini, a Catholic priest, passed through it on his way to preach the gospel to the Tartar hordes on the Lower Volga.

## MONGOL DOMINATION

The Tartar Mongols were a barbarous people, whom Genghis Khan (1154-1227) united. Under his leadership they conquered half Asia, and in 1224 they appeared in the southern steppes of Russia, where they routed an army of Polovtsi and Russians, who had united against the common foe, on the river Kalka. In 1238 these invincible barbarians ravaged Central Russia. Riazan, Moscow, Vladimir, Suzdal, Rostov, Yaroslavl, were all sacked by them. Their numbers made them irresistible. Every Tartar was a soldier, and in Russia the military class was a limited one. They invaded the territory of Novgorod. They laid waste Southern Russia and sacked Kiev. Baty Khan built himself a capital at the mouth of the Volga, and in 1260 the Tartars of Russia, the Golden Horde, became independent of the Grand Khan, who had seized the throne of China.

The conquerors of Russia did not drive away the Russian princes. They forced them to recognize their suzerainty, to furnish them with troops when required, and they imposed a capitation tax on the Russian people. The Tartars, who had been pagans, became Mohammedans about the year 1272; but they did not interfere with the religion of the Russians. The Tartar domination lasted for more than two hundred years, and under it the Russian people was subjected to greater humiliations than any other European nation has ever had to bear.



*From the painting]*

*[By C. Makoffski.*

## CHOOSING THE BRIDE

In 1647 the six maidens who had been selected for introduction to Alexis Michaelovich, that he might choose one for his Tsaritsa, were invited to a concert. Alexis, who was present as one of the musicians, fell in love with one, Eufemia, who reciprocated his passion ignorant that he was the Tsar. At the presentation ceremony Alexis publicly chose Eufemia.



## ST. ALEXANDER NEVSKY

Russia had other foes besides the Mongols. Novgorod, which had suffered less than the other cities of Russia from the barbarians, was exposed to the attacks of the Swedes and of the German Knights of the Sword. In 1240 the Novgorodians, under their Prince Alexander, attacked the Swedes in the Neva region, and defeated them. On account of this victory the prince became known as Alexander Nevsky, or Alexander of the Neva. Four years later he defeated the German knights in the Battle of the Ice, fought on the frozen surface of Lake Peipus, and drove them from the city of Pskov. This hero,

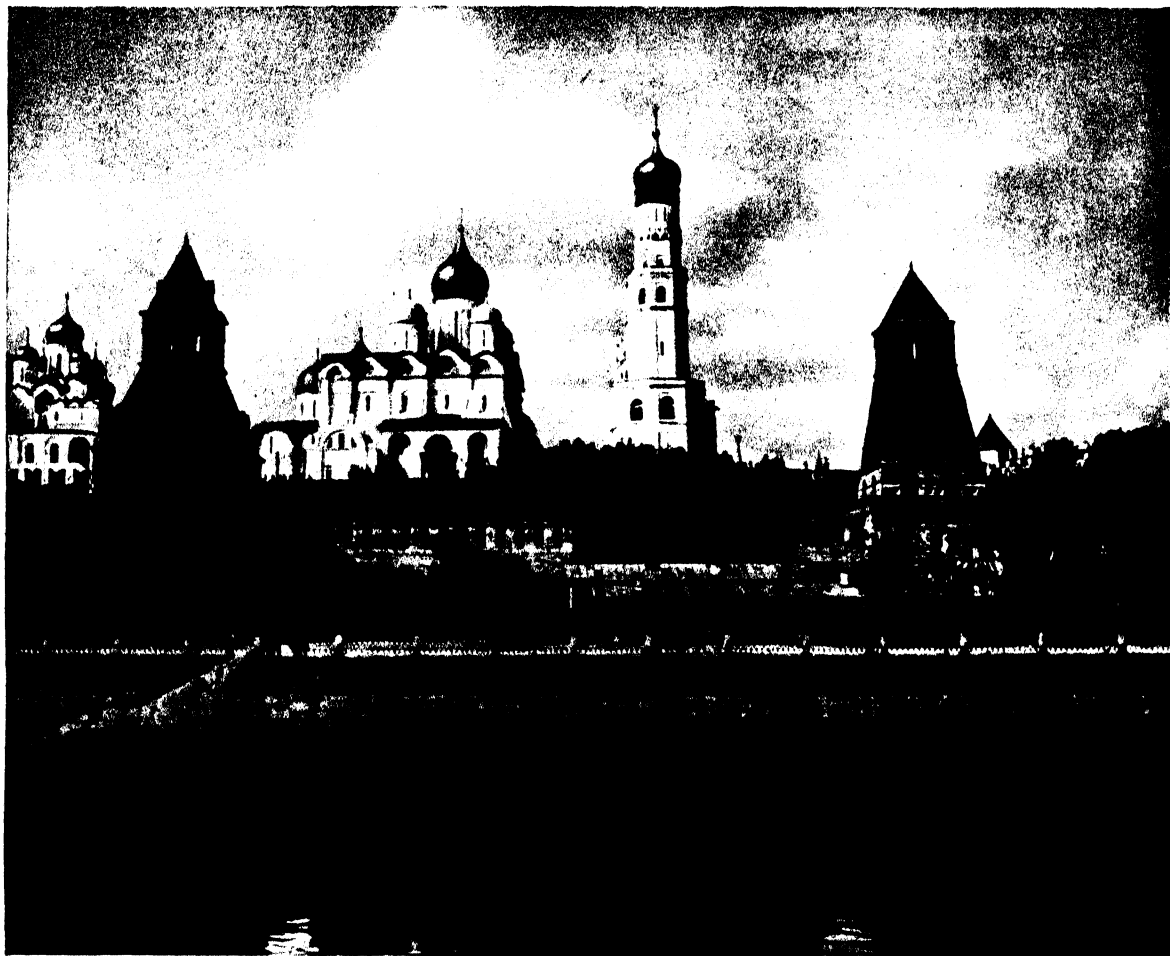


Photo by]

## THE TOWER OF IVAN IN THE KREMLIN, MOSCOW.

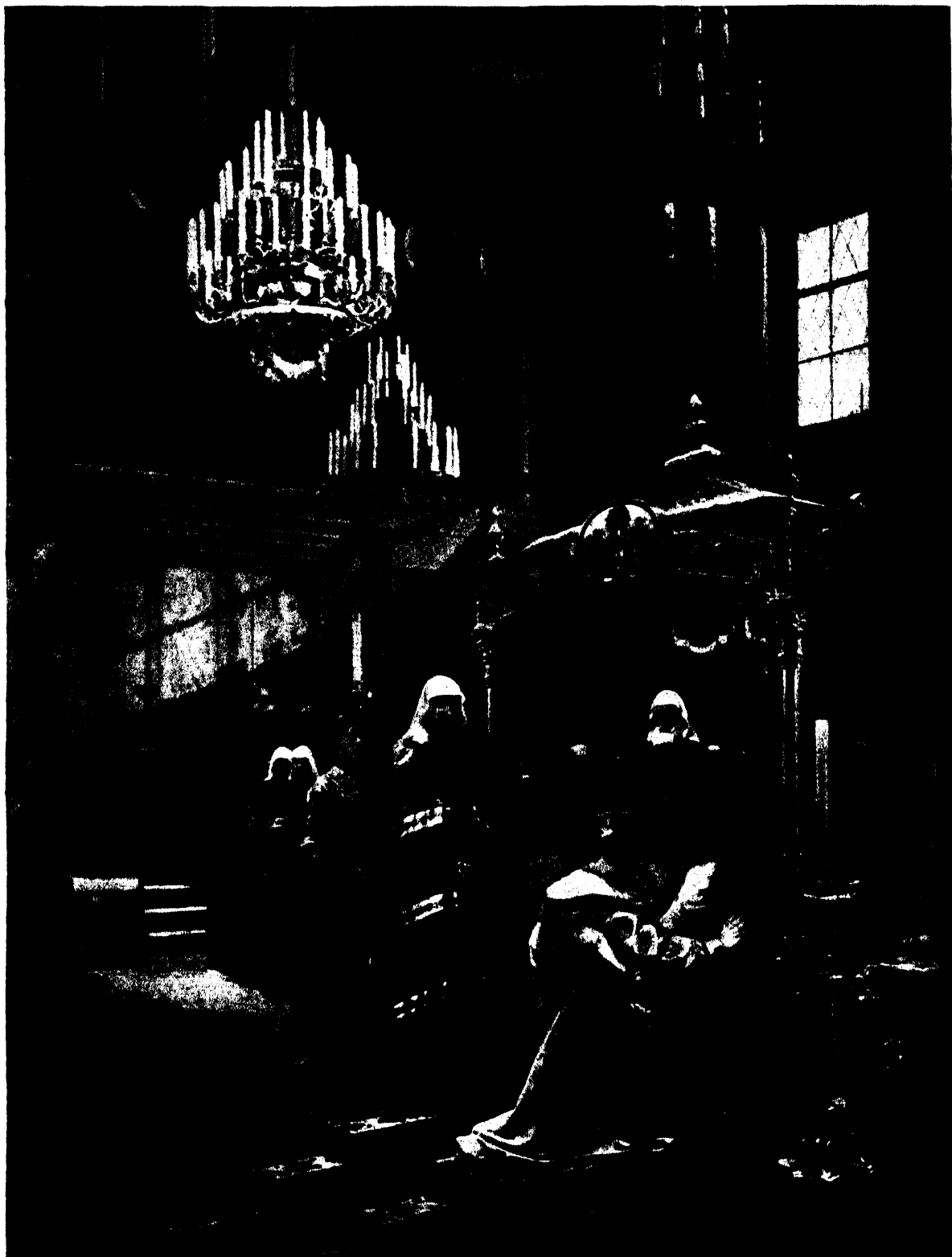
Underwood &amp; Underwood.

The bell-tower of Ivan Vélíki, commenced by Feodor Ivanovich and completed by Boris Godunov in 1600, rises in five stories—the four lower of which are octagonal and the fifth round—to a height of 320 feet. This includes the cross which in 1813 replaced the original, torn down in the previous year by the French, who believed it to be gold.

whose silver shrine may be seen in one of the churches of the monastery in Petrograd that bears his name, knew that the Novgorodians could not resist the Golden Horde. He and his brother Andrew, Prince of Suzdal, journeyed into Asia to do homage to the Grand Khan. He prudently induced the citizens of Novgorod to pay the tribute demanded of them by the Tartars, and in 1262, when the Men of Suzdal, Vladimir and Rostov rose against the tax-collectors, he went to the Tartar capital on the Volga and induced the Khan to pardon their insubordination.

## THE RISE OF MOSCOW

The rota system of princely succession, which had obtained in Kievan Rus, broke down when the centre of gravity of Russian life was moved to the north-east. Principalities passed from father to son.



*From the painting]*

#### TSAR ALEXIS MICHAELOVICH AT THE TOMB OF ST. PHILIP.

*[By A. Litovchenko.*

St. Philip was a man of noble family who became a monk of the Monastery of Solovetzsk and was afterwards made its Abbot. His piety became famous, and he was made Metropolitan of Moscow. He rebuked Ivan the Terrible for his cruelty with courage and persistence, for which he was imprisoned by the order of the Tsar. In 1569 he was smothered in prison. Miracles were said to have been worked at his tomb, and in 1652 the Tsar Alexis Michaelovich caused his relics to be brought to Moscow, where they still rest in a silver shrine in the Cathedral of the Assumption of the Mother of God.

But when a prince had more than one son, his territory was divided among them at his death ; hence the number of appanages was perpetually increasing and their size diminishing. It was the destiny of Moscow to reverse the process and to unite the principalities of Rus under one ruler. Moscow, as has already been said, is mentioned for the first time in Russian annals in the year 1147. It was then a country house belonging to the Prince of Suzdal. This house was situated on the site of the present Kremlin. It was the nucleus round which the city grew. In 1263 Daniel, youngest son of Alexander Nevsky, was made Prince of Moscow, which became the capital of an appanage that was not more than five hundred square miles in area.

Two causes contributed to the growth of Moscow's power : first, its geographical situation ; secondly, the ability and astuteness of its princes. The river Moskva, flowing past the high ground on which the Kremlin stands, gave the Muscovites easy access to the waterways of the Volga and the Oka, and was



*From the painting]*

*[By Miloradovitch.*

#### AN ECCLESIASTICAL COUNCIL IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

At this period, as at present in Russia, bishops are always chosen from the monks, as they must be unmarried ; while the parish clergy are bound to be married men. There is only one monastic order in Russia, the Basilian, and as the monks wear black robes they are often called the Black Clergy. The parochial priests and deans, who may wear cassocks of any colour, are named the White Clergy.

therefore a main factor in the development of the commerce of the city. Moreover, three great roads passed through Moscow, and afforded a means of communication by land with the great cities of the country. A third advantage enjoyed by Moscow was its central position, surrounded by other principalities, so that it was comparatively safe from foreign incursions. These geographical advantages led to the influx of a large number of colonists from other parts of Russia, all of whom, as tax-payers, contributed to the prosperity of the Muscovite princes. They, for their part, did their utmost to conserve order within their dominions, and thus the principality was regarded as one in which men might enjoy comparative tranquillity.

The Princes of Moscow used every means in their power, good and bad, to increase their influence and to extend their dominions. They bought land. They fought against other princes and seized their appanages. They intrigued at the court of the Khan and acquired more territory with the help of the Golden Horde. And Muscovite colonists pushed into the trans-Volga region and brought no-man's-land



*From the painting]*

*[By F. C. Heuner.*

## THEODORE III.

Theodore III (1661-1682) became Tsar in 1676. Though he was crippled and disfigured by a horrible disease, he was endowed with a fine intellect and disposition and accomplished many beneficial reforms.

turn against their Mohammedan masters should an opportunity arise. In the latter part of the fourteenth century dissensions among the Tartars made the Russians think that the time had come to throw off their yoke. In 1378, Dmitri Donskoi, who ruled in Moscow from 1362 to 1389, defeated a Tartar army. "Their time is over, and God is with us," he cried in the hour of victory. To avenge this defeat the Tartars collected an enormous army. But Dmitri displayed the qualities of a national leader, and uniting beneath his standard the forces of all the North, defeated the enemy on the plain of Kulikovo in the Don country, whence his surname, Donskoi. This victory did not destroy the power of the Tartars, who burned Moscow before Dmitri's death, but it put an end to the tradition that they were invincible.

## VASSILI I. AND VASSILI II.

Dmitri was succeeded by his son, Vassili I., who ruled from 1398 to 1425. During his reign the territory of Moscow was considerably increased, and the Golden Horde was further weakened by the attacks of hostile Tartars under Tamerlane. At his death his son, Vassili II., ascended the throne. This

beneath the sceptre of their princes. The success of these methods may be judged from the fact that by the middle of the fifteenth century the area of the principality had increased thirtyfold and was fifteen thousand square miles.

It must be admitted that the Muscovite princes were as unscrupulous as they were ambitious. Thus Ivan Kalita, who ruled from 1328 to 1340, was given suzerainty over the other princes of Rus as a reward for laying waste the territories of the Prince of Tver, who had offended the Khan. Henceforth Moscow held the political position in the Russia of the Volga which Kiev had held in the Russia of the Dnieper. The prestige of the city was greatly enhanced when the Metropolitan, the highest dignitary of the Russian Church, made it his see in 1328.

The Muscovite princes collected the taxes which the Russian people were forced to pay to the Tartars, and, as we have seen, ingratiated themselves with the Golden Horde by betraying their fellow-countrymen, when they thought an advantage was to be gained by doing so. They were, however, willing to



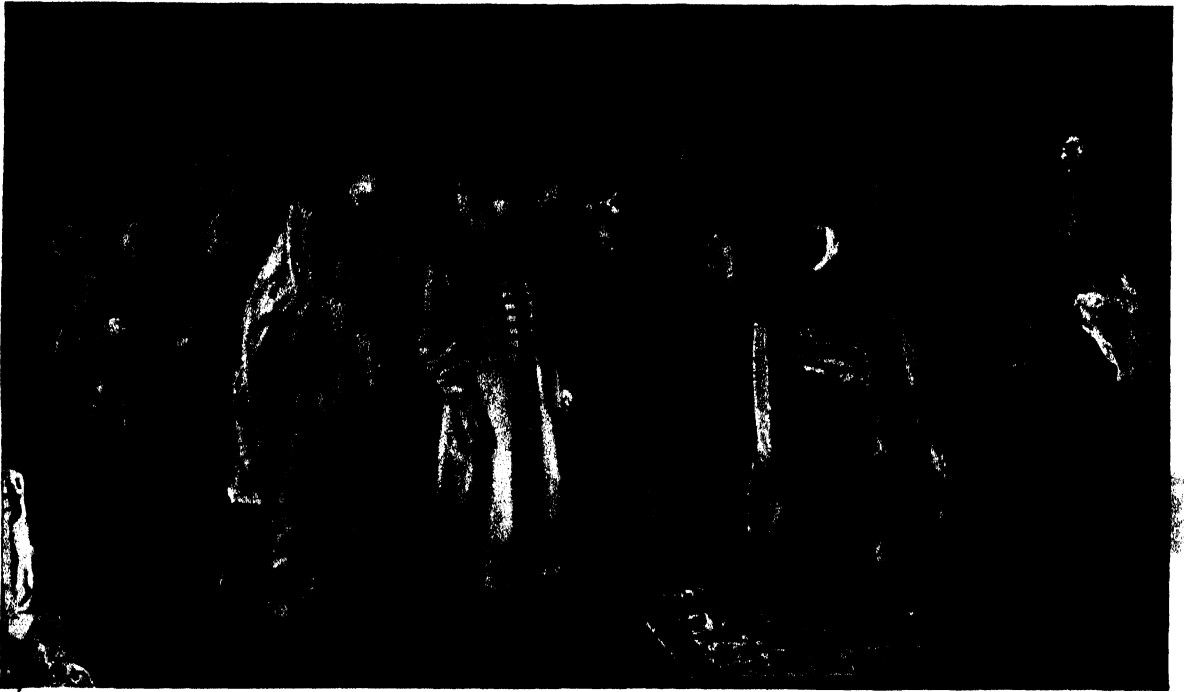
*From the painting]*

**SOPHIA ALEXEEVNA.**

*[By E. E. Répine.*

Sophia Alexeevna (1657-1704) usurped the Russian throne in 1682, but after a reign of seven years was compelled by the adherents of the rightful heir, Peter, to retire to a monastery.

prince's reign was disturbed by a protracted civil war, caused by the determination of his uncle, Yuri, to make himself ruler of Moscow. The struggle, continued by Yuri's son after his father's death, lasted until 1450, and ended in the triumph of Vassili. He is often called Vassili the Blind, because his eyes were put out by his cousin when he fell into his power in 1446. One of the most interesting events of his reign was the attempt made by the Greek Metropolitan Isidor to reunite the Russian Church with the Holy See. Isidor had been present at the Council of Florence, at which the differences between Rome and Constantinople had been adjusted. He welcomed the healing of a schism, which had lasted for nearly four centuries, and when he arrived in Moscow, inserted the name of Pope Eugenius in the prayers of the liturgy and caused the Act of Union to be read in the Cathedral of the Assumption. The Muscovites cared nothing for the fact that the document had been signed by the Greek Emperor and a multitude of Eastern bishops. They refused to have anything to do with a Pope whose claims were



*From the painting*

#### A BOYAR WEDDING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

*[By C. B. Lebedoff.]*

Marriages were arranged by the parents and relations of the young people for them. According to the prevailing fashion the bride and bridegroom met for the first time on the wedding-day, but in the reign of Peter the Great this custom was abolished by order of the Tsar.

recognized by Swedes and Lithuanians and Teutonic knights. Vassili the Blind agreed with his subjects, and Isidor was glad to escape from the country in 1443. The religious isolation of Russia was complete.

#### THE MUSCOVITE EMPIRE

Ivan III., who succeeded Vassili II. in 1462, has been called the founder of the Russian Empire, and the era which begins with his reign the Muscovite Empire period. At his accession the area of the principality of Moscow was not much more than fifteen thousand square miles. The territory ruled by the Republic of Novgorod was greater. Most of the Russia of the Dnieper period, including Kiev, had fallen under the domination of Lithuania, a state whose power became more formidable when united with Poland by the marriage of its Suzerain Prince, Jagiello, with the heiress of the Polish crown in 1386. And the Tartars, although split up under several rulers, still possessed the south-east of Russia, Kazan, Astrakhan, and exacted tribute from the Muscovites.

Ivan was cruel, a born despot, as a Russian historian has said ; but he was a man of vision, and realized the essential unity of the Russian land and of the Russian people. He assumed the title of Tsar of All Russia, and in his struggles with the Lithuanians claimed that the Russian lands they ruled were his



From the painting]

#### THE ANSWER OF THE ZAPOROGIAN COSSACKS TO MOHAMMED IV.

[By E. E. Röpke.

In 1671 Turkey was at war with Poland, which country Tsar Ivan Alexivich was bound by treaty to assist. The Turks conquered the important town of Kaminitz in 1672, and in consequence the Zaporogian Cossacks did not know whether they belonged to Turkey, Poland, or Russia. Sultan Mohammed IV., who had conquered and recently levied a tribute on the Poles, insisted that Ivan should give up his possessions in the Ukraine. The Tsar replied with a haughty denial, and an exchange of insolent letters followed between Ivan and the Sultan. Ivan Alexivich, however, died before the termination of the dispute.



From the painting]

[By F. C. Heuner.

**IVAN ALEXIVICH.**

Ivan Alexivich (1666-1696), physically and mentally deficient, was placed on the throne by his half-sister Sophia in 1682. In 1689, Ivan abdicated in favour of his brother Peter.

sovereigns, and foreign ambassadors visited his magnificent, if barbarous, court. He ruled in high-handed fashion and treated his nobles with contempt.

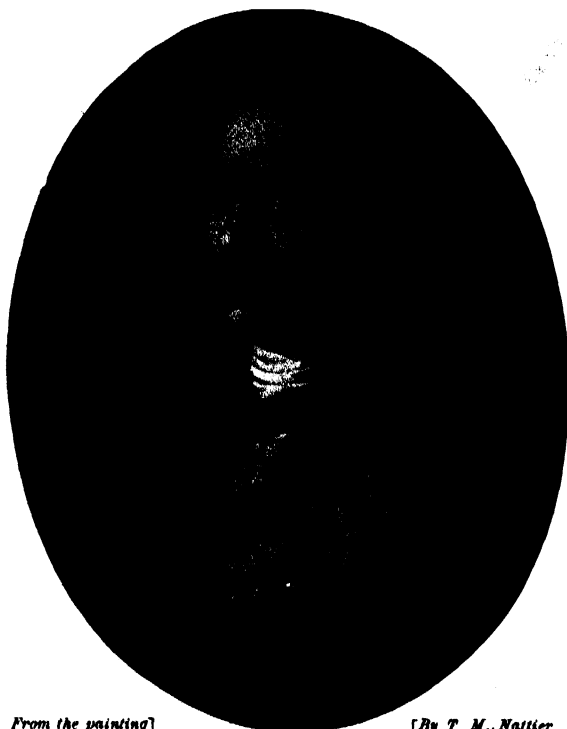
**IVAN THE TERRIBLE**

Vassili's son, Ivan IV., was an infant when he succeeded his father in 1533, and his mother, Helena Glinska, became Regent. She was a masterful and accomplished woman of Polish origin. In 1538 Helena died of poison, and the boyars, divided into two factions, struggled among themselves for power. Ivan was neglected and insulted. In 1543 the boy, who was then thirteen, suddenly showed that he had inherited the energy which had characterized his parents. He assembled the nobles, spoke to them haughtily, rebuking them for their misgovernment, and caused Prince Andrew Shuiski to be torn in pieces by dogs. He had earned the right to the name by which he is known: Ivan the Terrible.

The coronation of the young Tsar took place in 1547, and soon afterwards he married Anastasia Romanov, a member of the family which is now the reigning house. In that year the nobles stirred up the people of Moscow against the Glinskas, who, as the relatives of Ivan's mother, had assisted him in

heritage. His marriage with Sophia Palæologus in 1472 increased his pretensions. This princess was the niece of the last Byzantine Emperor, and she never forgot that imperial blood flowed in her veins. Under her influence Byzantine pomp complicated the life of the Court of Moscow, and her husband learned to regard himself as the successor of the Byzantine emperors. His claims were supported by his achievements. In 1478 he placed Novgorod definitely under the yoke of Moscow. In the same year he refused to pay tribute to the Golden Horde, and two years later he put an end to the Mongol domination, which had afflicted Russia for two and a half centuries. In 1487 the Khan of Kazan was a prisoner in Moscow, and Ivan gave his crown to a nephew of the Khan of the Crimea. He has been justly called Ivan the Great.

Under his successor, Vassili III., who reigned from 1505 to 1534, the aggrandizement of Moscow continued. He united the territories of the Republic of Pskov and those of Riazan to Moscow, and he took the ancient Russian city of Smolensk from the Lithuanians. At the end of his reign the Muscovite state was forty thousand square miles in area. Ivan entered into diplomatic relations with Western



From the painting]

[By T. M. Nattier.

**PETER THE GREAT**

Peter the Great (1672-1725) came to the throne in 1689. He organized the army and navy and waged many wars. In 1712 he married Catherine and made Petrograd his capital.

the task of government. One of them was murdered and Ivan's life was in danger. This event had a profound effect on the Tsar, and to it may perhaps be traced the fear of treachery on the part of the boyars, which dominated him, and finally became an obsession bordering on madness. As Mr. Maurice Baring has wittily said: "The whole secret of the career of Ivan the Terrible is that he was Ivan the Terrified."

In 1564 he became more suspicious than ever of those who surrounded him. He left Moscow with his family, and declared that the conduct of the boyars and nobles was such that he was forced to abdicate. As he doubtless expected, there was consternation in Moscow, and he was implored to come back. His return was a triumph and he imposed his terms on the nobles. After this he spent most of his time at Alexandrov, where he built a fortified palace. Three hundred trustworthy men formed his court, and divided their time between attendance at church services and carousing. Life in the palace was an amazing parody, more mad than insincere, of life in a monastery. The courtiers were dressed as monks and Ivan was their abbot. He was cruel, but he was also religious. He was accustomed from childhood to read the Bible and his singular knowledge of the Scriptures is displayed in his letters, which are filled with Biblical quotations. He directed the religious exercises of the palace-monastery, and



*From the painting]*

## THE PRIVATE GUARD OF PETER THE GREAT

*[By A. P. Riabouchkine.*

It was due to the organization of Peter the Great that Russia first possessed soldiers drilled and equipped equal to those of the armies of Western Europe. Here some members of the Tsar's bodyguard are seen drinking together in an inn.

prostrated himself in the most pious manner during the performance of divine service; but he showed equal energy in superintending the torture of persons suspected of disloyalty. There is no reason for questioning his sincerity. Nowhere in Europe were the formal practices of religion more carefully observed than in Muscovy; nowhere was the divorce between faith and conduct more marked. Ivan justified the torture and execution of suspects and the massacre of the people of Novgorod, whom he suspected of treachery, by saying that he was only cruel to those who were cruel to him. Once executed and out of his way, the despot was accustomed to show his benevolence to his victims by causing prayers to be said for the repose of their souls. He directed the monks of a Muscovite monastery to pray for three thousand four hundred and seventy of his victims, mentioning nearly a thousand of them by name. The wholesale massacre of the people of Novgorod is alluded to in the following pious appeal: "Remember, Lord, the souls of fifteen hundred and five of Thy servants, Novgorodians."

While Ivan the Great may be regarded as the true founder of the Russian Empire, Ivan the Terrible was the founder of the Russian autocracy. In theory his power was unlimited; in practice, it was curtailed by the boyars. Unable to reconcile the power of the crown with that of the aristocracy, he adopted a political expedient which subsequently led to grave troubles. He divided the country into two parts. Certain towns and districts, scattered about Russia, he placed under the direct control of the crown;



the rest of the land was to be administered by the Council of Boyars. To Englishmen there is no more interesting event in the reign of Ivan the Terrible than the opening-up of commercial and diplomatic relations between Russia and England. Three British ships set sail from Harwich in the spring of 1553 in order to find a north-east passage to India. Two of the vessels were lost, but one arrived in the White Sea at the end of August, and its commander, Richard Chancellor, landed and went to Moscow, where he was graciously received by Ivan. Not since the times of Yaroslav had there been any dealings between the Russians and the English. Appreciating the importance of the Russian

market to English trade, Chancellor returned to England, made a report of his adventure to Philip and Mary, and returned to Moscow as the agent of a company of merchants, which still exists under the name of the Russia Company. He obtained important concessions from Ivan, including the right for English merchants to establish themselves in a number of towns and a monopoly of the trade of the White Sea. In

February 1577, Joseph Napiea arrived in

Englishmen who visited his court may be gauged from the fact that he set his heart on marrying an English wife. Queen Elizabeth played with the Muscovite envoy, who tried to arrange an English match for his master. The name of Lady Mary Hastings, a distant relative of the queen's, was mentioned as that of a possible bride for the Tsar, and the ambassador was allowed to see her. The lady displayed no desire to become Tsaritsa, and negotiations finally broke down when the English Court discovered that Ivan's seventh wife was still alive. Both Mary and Elizabeth realized the importance of Russia as a market for English merchandise, and did their utmost to assist the establishment of commercial relations between the two countries; but the strangeness of the manners and



MONUMENT TO PETER THE GREAT.

To the south of the Admiralty Buildings in Peter Square, Petrograd, stands an equestrian figure of Peter the Great. This statue, sixteen and a half feet high and cast in bronze, is mounted on an enormous block of granite. The monument, erected at great cost, was unveiled in 1782.

London on an embassy from Ivan to Mary and entered the city in great pomp. When he returned to Russia he was accompanied by Anthony Jenkinson, the first Englishman to fly the flag of St. George on the Caspian. Archangel, founded in 1584, became the port of trade between Russia and England. A colony of British merchants existed there until Peter the Great built Petrograd and the port on the White Sea lost its former importance.

The high opinion Ivan formed of the



*From the painting]*

### PETER THE GREAT AT DEPTFORD DOCKYARD.

*[By Dr. Gustave, R.A.]*

Peter the Great began his travels in 1697. It was an unparalleled step for a young sovereign of twenty-five to take : to withdraw from his kingdom and journey abroad in order to learn the art of government. He was deeply interested in all branches of engineering, especially ship-building, which he first studied in Holland, working as an ordinary labourer in a dockyard. In 1698 Peter arrived in England to pursue his studies in the theory and practice of ship construction, which he did by visiting the dockyards of Woolwich, Chatham, and Deptford.



PETER SURPRISING THE CONSPIRATORS.

In 1698 a conspiracy was formed among members of the Streltzi to start a nocturnal conflagration in Moscow, and in the ensuing confusion and panic to murder Peter the Great, who would hasten to the fire. But two accomplices forewarned the Tsar, who surprised and arrested the conspirators while they were banqueting in a house preparatory to setting fire to the city

customs of Muscovy made it impossible for Ivan's matrimonial scheme to be seriously entertained in England. Even Elizabeth must have shrunk from condemning an Englishwoman to lead the dismal and monotonous life of a Russian Tsaritsa. The development of Muscovite civilization had been uninfluenced by the West. Men and women of the upper classes wore voluminous Byzantine garments, stiff with gold and embroidery. Few of them could read or write. The ladies were secluded in their own apartments and did not enter into the society of men. They were expected to spend their time in domestic duties and at services conducted by their chaplains. When they went out they were veiled. It was treason for a man to look on the face of the Tsaritsa. If she and her daughters went to a public church, they were surrounded by dwarfs bearing screens, covered with crimson taffeta. A boyarina sometimes made a ceremonial entry into the dining-hall to receive the salutations of her husband's guests; but after she had given to each a goblet containing half a pint of brandy, as an *apéritif*, she retired to dine with their wives in her own apartments. On these occasions both men and women were frequently drunk. "Love your wife like your soul and beat her like your fur coat," runs an old Russian proverb, and the Russian lady of the sixteenth century believed her husband did not love her if he did not beat her from time to time. Another proverb shows the ancient Russian ideal of beauty: "God make me fat, I can make myself rosy." Women not only painted their faces, they also blackened the whites of their eyes by a process the secret of which has been lost. It was considered immodest to show the natural complexion. Marriages were arranged by agents and by the relatives of the bride and bridegroom, who were not allowed to see each other until the night of the wedding. Both men and women spent a considerable part of their time in religious exercises. The fasts were rigorously observed. Children were made to learn passages of the Bible by heart. But religion and morality had little connection; neither the knowledge of the Scriptures nor the punctilious performance of the ceremonial directions of the Church proved a check to drunkenness and debauchery. It was

not until the beginning of the eighteenth century that the Byzantine shackles of Muscovite society were unloosed and Russians adopted the social customs and the dress of Western Europe.

The condition of the lower classes at this period was wretched. Commerce had been the economic basis of the life of the Russia of the Dnieper; agriculture was that of Muscovy. The land was in the hands of the sovereign, the church, and the nobles. Thus the farms of peasants were the property of others. They were held in return for rent, usually paid in kind or in work on the lands of the landlord. There were serfs in sixteenth-century Russia, but the majority of the people were in theory free. The tendency of legislation was to destroy the peasant's freedom, in the interests of the exchequer and the landowners, by placing restrictions on his right to migrate from one part of the country to another. The peasant was overburdened by taxation and often crippled by financial obligations to the landowners.

It was in this reign that a handful of Cossacks seized Sibir, the Mongol capital of Siberia, and a conquest completed by pacific colonization began.

## THE END OF THE DYNASTY

Ivan the Terrible died in 1584. He was succeeded by his son, Feodor I., a good man, who spent his time in religious exercises. He had neither the ability nor the inclination to direct the affairs of the state, and the real ruler of Russia during his reign was his brother-in-law, Boris Godunov, who was called Lord Protector by the English. It was he who induced Jeremias II., Patriarch of Constantinople, to acknowledge the Metropolitan of Moscow as a patriarch in 1589. This arrangement freed the Russian Church from the control of Constantinople and made it independent. When Feodor died in 1598, he left no heir. His only child had died in 1594, and his half-brother, Dmitri, had been found with his throat cut in 1591. The death of this child is shrouded in mystery, but there is little doubt that he was murdered. The enemies of Boris accused him of having instigated the crime.

## THE TIME OF TROUBLE

As the dynasty had become extinct, the Council of Boyars met to elect a Tsar. They chose the strong man of the period, Boris Godunov. He at once forced his chief rival, Feodor Romanov, cousin of the



## THE EXECUTION OF MEMBERS OF THE STRELTZI.

The Streltzi was a body of Russian household troops originally raised by Ivan the Terrible. Numbering about fifty thousand infantry, they formed the backbone of the Russian armies in the sixteenth and seventeenth-century wars. In 1698 a conspiracy formed among some two thousand of them to murder Peter the Great led to an almost general execution of the members.

late Tsar on the mother's side, to become a monk. In the cloister Feodor took the name of Philaret, but his rôle in Russian history did not end when he became a religious, as will be presently seen.

The reign of Boris was disturbed by the appearance in Poland of a Pretender to the throne, who declared that he was Dmitri, son

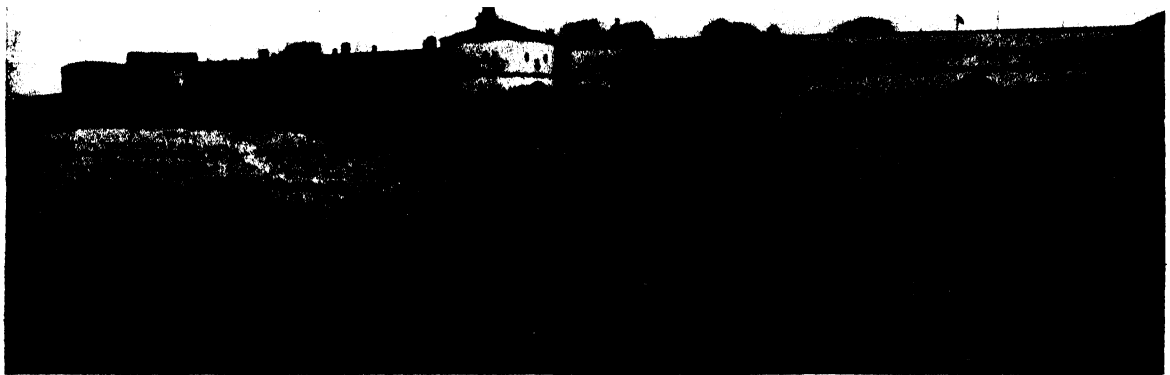
of Ivan the Terrible. He made out a plausible case for his claim, and stated that the child murdered in 1591 was a changeling, put in his place by a tutor who desired to save the rightful heir to the Russian crown from the upstart Boris. Many believed the Pretender's tale, and he played his part with such skill that the King of Poland, Sigismund III., and the Papal Nuncio at the Polish Court encouraged him to prosecute his claim to the throne. In 1604 he entered Russia at the head of an ill-equipped army of four thousand men. In the south and the south-west of the country the inhabitants flocked to his standard, seeing an

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CEMETERY INSIDE SCHLUSSELBURG FORTRESS.

Inside the fortress of Schlüsselburg, and therefore not visited by tourists, is the cemetery where the soldiers are buried who fell at the assault and capture of this fortress by the Russians in 1702.



FORTRESS OF SCHLUSSELBURG.

The fortress of Schlüsselburg was built in 1323 on the island opposite the town of the same name by the inhabitants of Novgorod, who were at war with Sweden, and its possession was a matter of contention between Russia and Sweden for a long time. In 1617 the fortress became Swedish, but in 1702 it was captured by Peter the Great.

## SPECIAL NOTE

Through a Printer's error the description of the Coloured Plate of Part XXXVII appeared by mistake under the Coloured Plate in Part XXXVI. In order that this may be rectified a gummed slip is appended below, which should be cut out and pasted over the description beneath the Plate in Part XXXVI.

CRUSADERS ON THE MARCH  
The Crusaders on the march, with the object of taking Jerusalem, were divided into three main bodies, the first of which was the army of the King of France, the second the army of the King of England, and the third the army of the King of Sicily. The first army, under the command of King Louis IX, was the largest and most powerful, and it was this army that was the first to reach Jerusalem. The second army, under the command of King Richard I, was the next to reach Jerusalem, and the third army, under the command of King Manfred, was the last to reach Jerusalem.

Printed specially for this work

PETER THE GREAT'S NAVAL PREPARATIONS

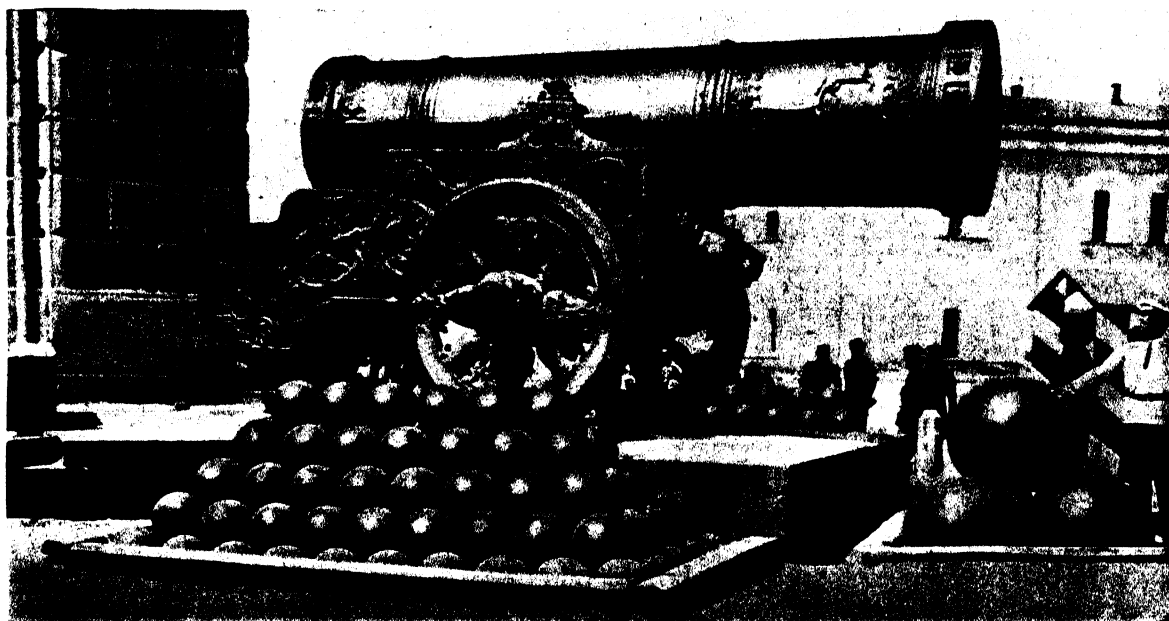
OF MARSHAL RANDALL

The foundation of the Russian Navy was laid by Peter the Great, and was due to his interest in ship-building and to his ambitious design of raking Azov from the Turks. In 1692 he engaged Dutch and Venetian shipwrights and began the construction of his navy. The principal nobility and the wealthiest merchants were obliged to contribute to the fitting out of this fleet, and, as the Tsar considered that the clergy ought to bear a proportion of the expense, a tax was levied upon the episcopal estates. In 1696 the Fleet was ready, and Peter the Great sailed against Azov.



opportunity of escaping the oppressive rule of Boris. The Cossacks of the Don also espoused his cause, and when Boris died in 1605, the opposition to the Pretender collapsed, and the nobles, who saw in him an instrument for regaining their power, professed to recognize in him the rightful heir to the throne. Boris Godunov's wife and his son Feodor were murdered, and the False Dmitri entered Moscow in triumph. Most historians hold that he was an impostor; but his identity remains a mystery.

The False Dmitri was an accomplished man and excelled in horsemanship; but he had not the ability to control the boyars who had placed him in power. His disregard for Russian customs offended the Muscovites, and the clergy suspected him of heterodoxy. The indignation his conduct had aroused was increased when Marina Mniszech, a lady to whom he had been betrothed in Poland, arrived in Moscow with a suite of Polish gentlemen. The Poles treated the Russians contemptuously, and a few days after the marriage of Dmitri and Marina had been celebrated, the feeling of the populace was so hostile to the Tsar that the nobles whom he had estranged, realizing that the golden moment for ridding themselves of him had arrived, attacked the Kremlin and murdered the sovereign.



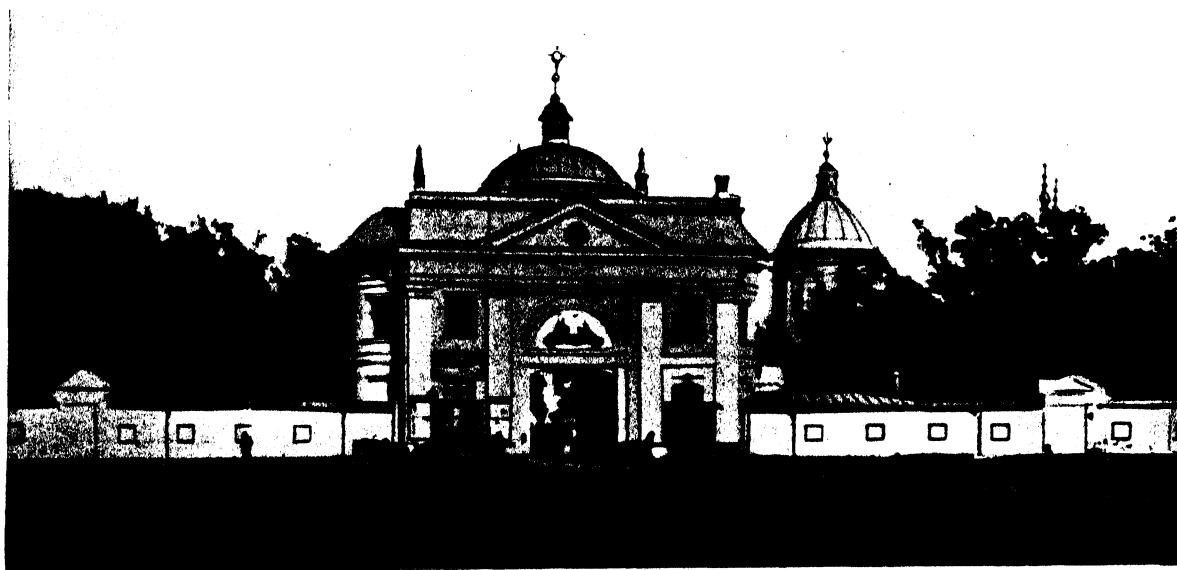
THE TSAR CANNON.

This huge cannon, seventeen and a half feet long and thirty-eight and a half tons in weight, stands in front of the main façade of the Kremlin Barracks at Moscow, and was cast by Tchekhov in 1586, in the reign of Theodore I. The bore of the cannon is about forty inches and the weight of the shot is nearly two tons.

The assassination of the False Dmitri took place in May, 1606. Vassili Shuiski, one of the chief conspirators, was then elected Tsar. He had no sort of hereditary claim to the throne, and his accession was followed by a period of anarchy which lasted until 1613. The *coup d'état* had been the work of Moscow, and in the provinces numbers of people refused to acquiesce in it. An army of insurgents besieged Moscow unsuccessfully five months after Vassili had become Tsar. A year later his troops had crushed the rebels. In order to cripple the peasants, who had been the mainstay of the revolt, Vassili issued an ukase which made it a crime, punishable by a heavy fine, for a peasant to leave the estate of a landowner he had contracted to serve. Dmitri had been the friend of the peasants and had expressly forbidden the enslavement of freemen; hence, when a rumour spread through Russia that he had not actually been murdered, but was still living, a new revolt broke out. The tale was supported by enemies of Vassili, who knew that it was untrue, and a man was found to play the part of Dmitri. The impostor collected a great force, which included Polish adventurers and Cossacks of the Don. He succeeded in defeating Vassili's troops in 1608, and established himself at the village of Tushino, close to Moscow. Dissensions among the followers of the second False Dmitri and the success of the Tsar's arms in the North gave some



prospect of a speedy termination of the anarchy, when the King of Poland invaded Russia and claimed the throne for his son, Wladislaw. The people of Moscow forced Vassili to abdicate and the Council of Boyars, obliged to choose between the Polish Prince and the second False Dmitri, elected the former as Tsar. The situation was appalling. Foreigners ruled in Moscow. A great but disorderly army of malcontents terrorized the provinces and threatened the capital. The Swedes, enemies of Poland, had seized Novgorod, and a third False Dmitri appeared under their protection. In this crisis it was the clergy who saved Russia. Letters from the monks of the great Troitsky Lavra summoned the people to unite for the defence of the Orthodox faith and to overthrow the Catholic Poles. At Nijni-Novgorod the letter from the Lavra was read to the citizens, and, under the influence of a great patriot, Kozma Minin, a butcher, the people armed themselves, sacrificed their money and goods to the national cause, and, with forces from other cities, placed themselves under the command of Prince Dmitri Pozharski, whom they called the Elect of the whole Muscovite Empire. The rich city of Yaroslavl was seized and became the headquarters of the new movement. The Cossacks and the Russian brigands who ravaged the country were crushed, and in October, 1612, the Poles were driven from Moscow. In the following



GATEWAY OF THE ALEXANDER NEVSKY LAVRA.

This monastery, the seat of the Metropolitan of Petrograd, is very large in extent, enclosing several churches and chapels. The relics of St. Alexander are kept in a silver shrine in the chief church, whither they were brought by order of Peter the Great. St. Alexander gained his surname of Nevsky by defeating the Swedes by the Neva in 1240.

January a great National Assembly met in Moscow to elect a Tsar. Their choice fell on Michael Romanov, whose father had been forced to become a monk by Boris Godunov. Thus in 1613 the founder of the present dynasty ascended the Russian throne.

#### THE FIRST ROMANOV TSAR

Michael was only fifteen when he ascended the throne. He displayed no strength of character, and it seemed as if Russia would once more be distracted by the intrigues of the nobles. The situation was saved by the return of the Tsar's father, who had been imprisoned in Poland, and from 1619 to his death in 1633, this talented prelate was virtually the ruler of Russia as well as Patriarch of Moscow. Before his return the robber insurgents in the country had been crushed; a treaty had been concluded with Sweden, by which Novgorod was restored to Russia, and a truce made with Wladislaw, who marched on Moscow at the head of a Polish army in 1618. It was not until 1634, after a war with Poland, begun by Russia, that the Polish claim to the Russian throne was finally abandoned.



#### INCIDENTS IN THE LIFE OF PETER THE GREAT.

Reading from left to right: Peter I. on Lake Ladoga, where once he was nearly drowned; his death was caused by a fever contracted while saving some sailors from drowning. Peter the Great at the capture of the fortress of Nöteborg from the Swedes in 1702; it was renamed Schlüsselburg because it was the key to the Neva. In 1702 Peter, after the capture of Schlüsselburg, drove the Swedes from the Neva, taking Kronstadt, the fortress guarding Petrograd. It was Peter the Great who was responsible for laying the foundations of and creating the Russian navy; the flagship of the Russian fleet in 1718 is here depicted.



A VIEW OF REVAL.

Reval, the capital of the government of Esthonia, is picturesquely situated on a bay in the Gulf of Finland. The town, more medieval in appearance than any other in the Baltic Provinces, is divided into three parts, the Upper Town, the Lower Town, and the Suburbs. These, which are beyond the town proper and extend along the shores of the bay, are the headquarters of the manufacturing district.

#### THE REIGN OF ALEXIS

Michael died in 1645 and was succeeded by his son Alexis, who reigned until 1676. Three years after he ascended the throne a *Sobor*, or Council, was assembled to draw up a new code of laws. Unhappily the liberty of the peasants was not safeguarded, and the new laws touching them were framed in the interests of the exchequer and the landowners. In 1653 another Council was assembled by Alexis, and consulted on the question of sending help to the Little Russians, who had rebelled against their Polish rulers. The Council decided to intervene in the struggle. The Russians were gaining the upper hand in the war that followed, but the intervention of Charles X. of Sweden, who seized Warsaw, Poznan and Kraków, and showed his readiness to help the Little Russians to establish an independent state, forced Russia and Poland to unite. The Swedes were driven out and war then broke out again between the allies. Peace was not established until 1667, when the Poles gave back to Russia the city of Smolensk and a large part of Little Russia, including the city of Kiev, was again placed under Russian rule.

#### THE OLD BELIEVERS

At a Council, assembled by Alexis in 1654 at the desire of the Patriarch Nikon, it was decided to correct the text of the liturgical books. This task was performed and, at the same time, certain unimportant changes were made in the ceremonies of the Church, in order to make them identical with those employed by the Greeks. These reforms were resented by many ecclesiastics and laymen, who held that the efficacy of the rites of the Church was impaired by a change in the spelling of the name of Jesus and by the substitution of the Greek rule of making the sign of the Cross with three fingers for the Russian rule, which enjoined that two fingers should be employed. It is possible that these objections would have disappeared in the course of time, had not a Council of Bishops, held in 1666, solemnly anathematized all who refused to accept the reformed rites and ceremonies. The opponents of change saw in this anathema a sign of the apostasy of the national church, arguing that if they were to burn in hell fire for crossing themselves with two fingers, it followed that, in the opinion of the Council, their forefathers and all the old saints were heretics and eternally lost. Consequently they resisted the changes with passionate fervour, and a persecution, unsurpassed in cruelty and unparalleled in stupidity, followed.

Thousands of the Old Believers, as they called themselves, died on the scaffold or at the stake, and scores of thousands were tortured or mutilated. During this persecution numbers of persons underwent the "baptism of fire"—that is to say, they locked themselves up in a church or barn, set fire to the place and perished in the flames. In the north of Russia alone ten thousand persons inflicted martyrdom on themselves in this manner. Persecution increased the number of Raskolniki, or Schismatics, and when it ceased, early in the reign of Peter the Great, the Old Believers had become an important body. At the present time there are over twenty million Raskolniki, divided into innumerable sects.

## FEODOR AND SOPHIA

Alexis was succeeded by his son Feodor, who reigned from 1676 to 1682. He concluded an advantageous treaty with the Sultan of Turkey and the Khan of the Crimea in 1680 after a short war, by which the right of Russia to the Ukraine and Zaporogia was acknowledged. Feodor had no son. At his death the claims of his brother Ivan, who was physically defective and almost an idiot, were set aside, and his half-brother, Peter, a child of nine, proclaimed Tsar. The boy's mother, Natalia, was made Regent. This arrangement incensed the relatives of the first wife of the Tsar Alexis, and they stirred up a revolt in Moscow. Natalia's brother was murdered and the Tsarevna Sophia, daughter of Alexis by his first wife, Maria, reigned in the name of her two brothers, who were to share the throne. Sophia was an ambitious woman, but a revolution in 1689 brought her reign to an end and she was immured in a convent. Ivan was hopelessly incapable and Peter became sole ruler.

## PETER THE GREAT

Peter's mother, Natalia, had been brought up in the household of a nobleman who had married a Scotchwoman, Miss Hamilton. This lady had introduced Western customs into her home, and her husband's ward grew up in a freer atmosphere than that of the *terim*. Thus it was from his mother that Peter first became acquainted with foreign ideas. His education was neglected, but he was an inquisitive child, ready to pick a watch to pieces to find out how it worked, and eager for information. His chief sport was playing at soldiers, and by the time he was sixteen, his military games had become



From the painting]

[By T. Bouroff.

## PETER III. VISITING IVAN AT SCHLUSSELBURG.

Ivan VI. (1740-1764) was deposed when quite an infant in 1741, and imprisoned in the fortress of Dünamünde. In 1744 Ivan was separated from his family and moved to Kholmogory, where he remained for twelve years. He was next transferred to Schlüsselburg, where he was visited by Peter, who sympathized with and might have helped him had he himself not been overthrown.

sufficiently serious as to be dangerous. The discovery of a forgotten English boat in a shed turned his thoughts in another direction. A couple of Dutch workmen, who were living in Moscow, taught him how to sail it on a lake near the country home in which Natalia had settled when Sophia became ruler. The boy was allowed to run wild, and while he hardened himself by sport, he learned a good deal that was evil from companions picked up haphazard. His mother made him marry Eudoxia Lapoukhin, a beautiful but insipid girl, in 1689, when he was seventeen years old. He tired of her in three months and afterwards caused her to be immured in a convent.

After the fall of Sophia, the relations of Natalia managed the affairs of the realm, and Peter continued his erratic course. In the intimacy of Patrick Gordon, a Scotchman, and Francis Lefort, a Swiss, his love



*From the painting]*

*[By F. C. Beuner.*

#### CATHARINE I.

Catharine I. (1684-1727) came of peasant stock, and was brought up by a Lutheran pastor. In 1702 she married a Swedish dragoon, but after various vicissitudes became the mistress of Peter the Great, to whom she was married in 1712. On Peter's death she was acknowledged Empress of Russia.



*From the painting]*

*[By F. C. Beuner.*

#### ANNA IVANOVNA.

Anna Ivanovna (1693-1740) was a niece of Peter the Great. In 1710 she married the Duke of Courland, who died a year later. The throne of Russia was bestowed on her by the Supreme Council in 1730, and she, in conjunction with her paramour, Biren, established a rule of complete autocracy.

of foreign ideas increased, and he resolved to revolutionize the life of his realm. For six years his life is a round of sport and gaiety. Mimic battles are so serious that now and then a combatant is killed or injured. Peter himself nearly loses his life while sailing on the White Sea. His nights are riotous. In 1695 he goes light-heartedly to lay siege to Azov and fails disastrously. The failure makes him serious. He sends abroad for workmen. Thousands of peasants are set to work to build a fleet, and in May, 1696, a Russian flotilla descends the Don to lay siege again to Azov. In July the city is taken and Peter returns in triumph to Moscow. He has won his spurs and can now indulge his desire to visit foreign parts. In the early spring of 1697 an imposing embassy, of which Lefort is the head, leaves Russia for the courts of foreign sovereigns. Peter accompanies it incognito and calls himself Peter Mikhailov; he does not dare to offend his subjects by going to the heretics of the West as Tsar of Russia. The Russians in rich Byzantine dresses astonish the foreign courts they visit. They are regarded as barbarians. Peter



*From the painting*

#### THE INSURRECTION OF PUGATCHEV.

*[By B. Perov.]*

Ivanovich Pugatchev, a Cossack ensign, was invalided home about 1770 during the first Russo-Turkish war. He led a wandering life for some years, but in 1773 he suddenly proclaimed himself to be Catharine's husband, whom he declared had not been assassinated. This Russian pretender called himself Peter III., and in a short time a large force of Cossacks, peasants, and Tartars rallied round him. The rebellion assumed and maintained formidable proportions for more than a year, but finally, after a crushing defeat, Pugatchev was betrayed by some of his followers and executed at Moscow in 1775.



*From the painting]*

*[By Rosselin.]*

#### CATHARINE II.

Catharine II. (1729-1796) married in 1745 Peter III., whom she murdered. She became Empress of Russia in 1762. A woman of great ability, though full of the vices of her time, she ruled the country with energy and power.

is prevented from visiting Venice by the news from Russia that the Streltzi, or men-at-arms, are in revolt.

The Streltzi disliked the energy of Peter, and desired to place Sophia again on the throne. The vengeance that followed their revolt was terrible. They were put to excruciating torture and a thousand were executed. It is said that Peter himself was one of the executioners. For five months the corpses of the rebels were exposed before the eyes of the citizens of Moscow, and three of them hung before the windows of Sophia's convent cell, in which the Tsar ordered that she should be imprisoned for life. Her sister Martha was also forced to take the veil; and the mild Eudoxia, the wife whom Peter had never loved, was shut up in a convent at Suzdal and shorn a nun.

Not the most degenerate of the Roman emperors has surpassed Peter in cruelty and vice; yet he was the instrument to transform the life of Russia and to make its people adopt the manners of the West.

He began by forcing his subjects to look like foreigners. As soon as he returned from abroad, he ordered them to shave off their beards, a practice considered sinful by the Orthodox. On August 29th, 1689, an ukase announced that all were to wear Western clothes, and models of the new fashions were displayed in the cities. Six years later there was not a person of distinction to be seen in Moscow dressed in the old style.

Having dressed his subjects as Europeans, Peter desired them to behave in a manner befitting their

himself behaves like a savage; but in spite of the coarseness of his manners, he sometimes makes a profound impression on those he meets. The embassy passes through Germany into Holland, where Peter works as a carpenter in the ship-yards. He hears that he can learn more in England, and crosses the Channel in an English vessel, placed at his disposal by William III. In London he amuses himself and works. There is a passing love-affair with Mrs. Cross, the actress, a boxing match at which he wins a wager made with the Duke of Leeds, hard drinking with the Marquis of Carmarthen. But he works hard for six weeks in the dockyards at Deptford, where he lives at Says Court. He is out of place at the court of King William. Burnet writes of him disdainfully. It is said that Peter thrust an enormous diamond, wrapped in dirty paper, into the hand of the King when he bid him farewell. He returns to Holland, goes to Vienna, and

new clothes. In 1702 he revolutionized the social life of the upper classes by forbidding the seclusion of women and, in 1704, the marriage of young people against their will. His first attempts to create a *vie mondaine* were ludicrous. Gatherings at which men and women met began in embarrassment and ended in drunkenness. The vulgarity and indecency of the court festivities pass belief.

It was Peter's function to initiate. He left the result of his revolutionary reforms to time. He gave his people opportunities of educating themselves, but found it difficult to persuade them to study. Institutions for higher education were established in Moscow, in which learned professors from England and Germany taught ; their chief difficulty was that their pupils had not received the rudiments of education. In 1714 the Tsar ordered schools to be established in connection with cathedrals and monasteries. Five years later he was informed that only one such school existed. To compel his subjects to educate themselves, Peter ordered that no gentleman should be permitted to marry if he had not been educated. In 1707 he simplified the complicated Slavonic alphabet, in which liturgical books are still printed, and gave Russia the " civil script " which is now in use.

In 1721 Peter placed the Church under the heel of the State. The last patriarch had died in 1700 and a successor was not nominated. In place of the patriarchate, the Holy Synod, a committee of ecclesiastics, presided over by a nominee of the crown, was established to govern the Orthodox Church. This measure gave the Tsar absolute control of ecclesiastical affairs ; for the Synod is not allowed to issue any orders without the permission of the Procurator, who stands in the same relation to the Church that the Minister of War does to the Army.

Peter was the creator of the Russian navy. He gave his country an army, drilled and equipped in the European manner. He reorganized the Government. Colleges or ministries were founded to administer the various departments of the State. The country was divided into eight governments.



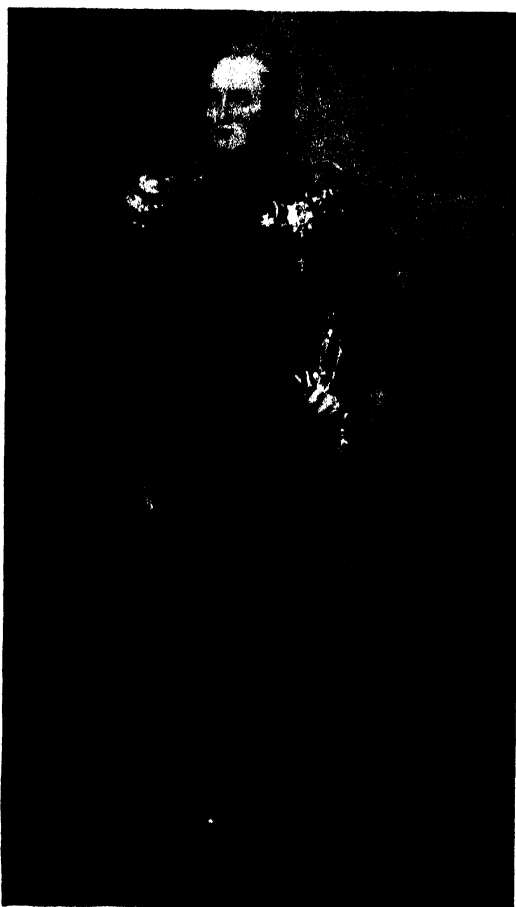
DESTRUCTION OF THE TURKISH FLEET 7th JULY, 1770

In 1770 Catharine II. equipped a powerful fleet, which she dispatched to the Aegean Sea against the Turks, who had declared war on Russia in the previous year. The Turkish admiral stupidly allowed his fleet to be blockaded in the narrow channel of Scio, and the Russians, by sending fire-ships amongst the vessels, destroyed the whole Turkish navy



In 1718 the code of laws was approximated to the Swedish code. In 1720 courts of justice were set up in every town. This list of reforms, which is by no means exhaustive, gives some idea of the boundless energy with which Peter worked.

Peter was not only a reformer, he was also a soldier. He had taken a port on the sea of Azov; he required one on the Baltic, which was then a Swedish sea. Hence he was glad to unite with Augustus II., King of Poland, and with the King of Denmark, against Charles XII. of Sweden. In October, 1700, Peter attacked Narva, but his troops were defeated by the Swedes. A year later the Russians gained an encouraging, if not brilliant, victory in Livonia. Peter's aim was to drive the Swedes from the Neva. In 1702 he drove the enemy from the island, situated



*From the painting]*

*[By F. Gérard.*

#### ALEXANDER I.

Alexander I. (1777-1825) married in 1793 Elizabeth of Baden, and became Tsar in 1801. He initiated many reforms, founded the Holy Alliance and took an active part in the Napoleonic wars.

in the midst of the Neva, as it flows in a mighty stream from Lake Ladoga, and called by him Schlüsselburg, and the following year he took from them the islands that form the delta of the river. There he built a fortress, which he dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul, the centre round which his new capital rose magically. The war between Russia and Sweden dragged on, and at the end of the year 1706 Peter made an unsuccessful attempt to come to terms with Charles. The Swedish king's love of adventure, however, delivered him and his army into the hands of the Tsar. He imprudently penetrated into the Ukraine, and his diminished and weary army was defeated by the Russians at Poltava in June, 1709. Charles took refuge in Turkey, but the Great Northern War continued, and in 1715, when the Swedish King had again reappeared in



*From the painting]*

*[By S. Fort.*

#### THE BATTLE OF EYLAU, 8th FEBRUARY, 1807

Eylau was the scene of a severe engagement between the French, under Napoleon, and the Russians and Prussians, commanded by General Bennigsen. The battle commenced in a dense snowstorm at 8 a.m., and after a contest lasting all day—both sides being utterly exhausted—the French were completely defeated.



*From the painting]*

#### THE TREATY OF TILSIT. 1807.

*[By A. Rochu.*

After the rout of the Russians at Friedland, 13th June, 1807, Napoleon, instead of imposing heavy terms upon Alexander I., made an alliance with the defeated emperor and offered him a share in his glorious triumphs. Accordingly a raft, on which were two magnificent pavilions, was specially constructed and moored in the middle of the river Niemen, opposite Tilsit. Here the two emperors met, and Napoleon, craftily playing upon Alexander's imagination described in glowing terms how he and his new-found ally would divide the empire of the world between them.



From the painting]

[By Delbet.

#### NAPOLÉON GIVING A MEDAL TO A RUSSIAN. TILSIT, 1807.

Napoleon was desirous of making as good an impression as possible upon his defeated adversary, Alexander I. of Russia. When the two emperors met at Tilsit, Napoleon decorated many members of Alexander's suite with medals, and he is depicted presenting a Russian aide-de-camp with the Legion of Honour.

Russia had been obliged to yield Azov to Turkey, but this loss was compensated for by the great accession of territory which she received by the Peace of Nystad in 1721, namely: Esthonia, Livonia, Ingria, the province of Keksholm and Viborg. The war, which had lasted twenty-one years, thus increased the power of Russia, gave her ports on the Baltic, and destroyed the power and the prestige of Sweden. The year after the Peace of Nystad had been signed, Peter went to war with Persia. Baku was stormed and the Persians were forced to cede territory on the Caspian. During this campaign Peter suffered from a trying malady, and his health, which had been undermined by his labours and his vices, became a source of grave concern to those who surrounded him. He refused to take any rest, and in September, 1724, he would not allow the violent pain, caused by a complication of disorders, to prevent him from going to superintend the digging of the Ladoga canal. In November, on his way back to St. Petersburg, he went to the rescue of some soldiers, who were in danger of drowning, and stayed a considerable time up to his waist in icy water. The soldiers were saved, but the Tsar's life was sacrificed. He was in a high fever, when he arrived in the capital, and obliged to take to his bed. He lingered for two months. During the last week of his illness he made his confession and communicated three times. On January 28th, 1725, he died. He was little mourned. His subjects had been wearied by his energy, and the death of the maker of Modern Russia brought a sense of relief to the nation.

#### CATHARINE I.

Peter had not appointed a successor. His son Alexis had been done to death in 1718. This prince's lack of energy and of military ardour had incensed his father, who realized that he was more likely to

destroy his work than to continue it. Alexis had fled to Vienna in 1716, and had only been induced to return by the promise of a free pardon. Peter broke his word. Alexis was tortured, and to save himself from more suffering, declared that he had desired his father's death. After this he was flogged twice with the knout and condemned to death. The exact manner of his death is not known, but there is reason for thinking that he died in a swoon.

Who, then, was to succeed Peter? The reactionaries desired to see the little Grand Duke Peter, son of Alexis, ascend the throne. Menshikov and a small but energetic group of men, who had helped Peter the Great in his work, urged the claims of Catharine, Peter's widow, and she was proclaimed Empress on February 22nd, 1725. No career has been more romantic than hers. She was the servant of a Lutheran pastor of the town of Marienburg and probably of Polish origin. In 1702, when the Russians were besieging the town, the servant-girl, pert and jolly, was brought to the camp and remained. She was the mistress of a petty officer, then of a general, and finally she caught the fancy of Menshikov, the Tsar's favourite. Peter also amused himself with her, and for some years she was one of the mistresses of both the Tsar and his favourite. After the marriage of Menshikov, Catharine remained with Peter. She was a good comrade, a woman full of common sense, and she became necessary to Peter. He began to regard her as his wife, and at last made up his mind to marry her. In spite of the fact that the unhappy Eudoxia was still alive, the marriage of Catharine and Peter was celebrated in 1712. In 1724 the Tsar caused her to be solemnly crowned as Empress in the Cathedral of the Assumption at Moscow. The ceremony was performed with great splendour. The crown made for the Empress was the most magnificent seen in Russia, and was said to be worth one hundred and fifty thousand guineas. Her



*From the painting]*

## ALEXANDER I. PRESENTING THE KALMUCKS AND COSSACKS TO NAPOLEON

*[By Bergeret.]*

Alexander I. of Russia had entered the coalition of the European Powers against Napoleon, but in June, 1807, the Russians were defeated by the French at Friedland. Ten days later the two emperors met at Tilsit and concluded a peace. Alexander is shown presenting to Napoleon the chiefs of different Cossack tribes which formed part of his army.

robe and her carriage had been brought from Paris.

This, then, is the woman who became Autocrat at the death of Peter. Free to do as she liked, she left the burden of government to her advisers and amused herself with her lovers. A year after she ascended the throne, a Supreme Privy Council was established, and it was enacted that no ukase should be issued without the sanction of this body.

#### PETER II.

Catharine I. died in 1727 and was succeeded by Peter II., son of Alexis and grandson of Peter the Great. The new Tsar was a child of eleven, and during the first four months of his reign, ascend the throne. This princess was a daughter of Ivan V., who had reigned jointly with Peter the Great until his death in 1696. Under the influence of Prince Dmitri Galitzin, it was resolved to impose terms upon the duchess, which would rob her of all authority and place the control of the affairs of the realm in the hands of the Supreme Privy Council. Anne agreed to the terms proposed to her, left her home at Mittau, and entered Moscow on February 26th, 1730. She was aware that a plot was on foot to upset the arrangement made with her by the Privy Council, which would have substituted an oligarchy for an



BARCLAY DE TOLLY.

Prince Michael Andreas Barclay de Tolly (1761-1818), a Russian field-marshal of Scottish ancestry who won considerable distinction in the campaign against Napoleon, 1806-1815. He received the bâton of field marshal at Paris.



MARSHAL KUTUZOV

Michael Ilarionovich Kutuzov (1745-1813), a Russian field-marshal. He distinguished himself in campaigns against Poland and Turkey in 1774, and in 1805 commanded the Russian armies opposing Napoleon.

autocracy. On March 8th nearly a thousand nobles and officers of the Guards came to the Kremlin and demanded an audience with her. They were admitted to her presence and begged her to withdraw the pledges she had given. She played her part superbly, affected reluctance to break her word, then owned that she had been misinformed as to the wishes of the nation, and finally cancelled the articles she had signed at Mittau. That night she was proclaimed Autocrat of All the Russias. Her experience caused her to distrust the Russian nobles,

Menshikov, the chief adviser of Catharine, remained in power. The reactionary party managed to get Peter into their hands, and Menshikov was banished to Siberia. The Dolgorukis and Galitzins, who disliked the violent policy of Peter the Great, expected to do what they liked with the young Emperor, but their plans were nipped in the bud by his death from smallpox in January, 1730.

#### ANNE

At the death of Peter II. the four available members of the Supreme Privy Council met, and it was decided to invite Anne, the widowed Duchess of Courland, who was then thirty-seven, to



COUNT WITGENSTEIN

Ludwig Adolf Peter Witgenstein (1769-1843), a Russian general who in 1812 commanded the First Russian Army Corps, and in 1813 was in command of all the Russian forces in the war against Napoleon.



*From the painting*

#### THE BATTLE OF POLOTSK

Polotsk, which lies on the right bank of the Düna, was a place of much importance in the struggles between the French and the Russians during the Napoleonic wars. On the afternoon of the 16th August, 1812, the Russian advance guard came into contact with some outposts consisting of French and Bavarian troops. In the evening the main French army took up a position of defence which was considered by the Russian generals too strong to be attacked. Nevertheless, by a series of manoeuvres, St. Cyr, the French commander, induced the Russians to embark on a general conflict, which proved disastrous to themselves

*[By J. C. Langlois.]*



Photo by]

## GUNS CAPTURED DURING THE CAMPAIGN OF 1812

[Underwood &amp; Underwood.

In front of the huge Arsenal opposite the Kremlin Barracks stand eight hundred and seventy-five cannon captured by the Russians in 1812. These include three hundred and sixty-six French guns, and a number of Austrian and Prussian.

who were constantly intriguing against each other, and she surrounded herself with Germans. Her chief favourite was Biren, the grandson of a groom. She loaded the talented upstart with honours and finally secured for him the throne of the Duchy of Courland. Anne changed the easy-going methods of government which had obtained under Catharine I. and Peter II., and ruled with severity. During her reign Russia was involved in the War of the Polish Succession (1733-1735), which ended in the establishment on the Polish throne of the claimant favoured by the Court of St. Petersburg. A war with Turkey (1735-1739) restored to Russia the fortress of Azov.

## IVAN VI.

Anne died of an apoplexy in 1740, leaving the throne to Ivan VI., her great-nephew, the infant son of Prince Anthony of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel and his wife, Anna Leopoldovna, a princess of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and daughter of the late Tsaritsa's sister. The child was proclaimed Emperor as Ivan VI., and the Empress's German favourite, Biren, became Regent. Three weeks later the enemies of Biren had him arrested and sent with his family to Siberia. Anna Leopoldovna was declared Regent, and the organizer of the *coup d'état*, Marshal Münnich, became the real ruler of Russia. Another German, Osterman, one of the most capable of the late Empress's advisers, became Minister of Foreign Affairs.

## ELIZABETH

In December, 1741, a conspiracy to place Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great and Catharine, on the throne succeeded. The infant Tsar and his parents were exiled to Kholmogory, near Archangel, and Elizabeth was proclaimed Empress. The rule of German ministers was over, and Elizabeth made a Russian, Bestuzhev, Vice-Chancellor of the Empire. All Europe was eager to know what part Russia would play in the War of the Austrian Succession. Bestuzhev proved to be the friend of Austria, and in 1745 an Austro-Russian treaty of alliance was concluded. In 1748 a Russian army marched to the Rhine, but the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle put an end to the war, and the Russians returned without having fired a shot. Elizabeth was justly alarmed at the rapidly increasing military power of Prussia under Frederick II., whom she hated and described as "a bad prince, who has no fear of God before his eyes." In 1756 Frederick invaded Saxony, and the following year eighty-three thousand Russians advanced into East Prussia. The folly of the Russian Generalissimo deprived Russia of the initial advantage

gained in this war and led to the ruin of Bestuzhev, who was succeeded by Vorontsov. In 1758 East Prussia was occupied by the Russians under Count William Fermor, and in 1760 the Russians were in possession of Berlin and overran Pomerania the following year. Frederick was at the mercy of Russia, and part of his kingdom would have been irretrievably lost to him had not a complete change of policy followed the death of the Empress Elizabeth in January, 1762.

## PETER III.

The new Tsar was Peter III., son of Elizabeth's sister Anna, and of Charles Frederick, Duke of Holstein-Gottorp. He had the most unbounded admiration for the King of Prussia, and when Frederick sent Goltz to make terms of peace with him, the envoy found that the Tsar wore a portrait of the King set in a ring. Goltz had been instructed to offer East Prussia to Russia, if it were necessary to make that sacrifice in order to secure peace. It was not necessary, for Peter restored to Frederick all the conquests of the Russian army and concluded an alliance with him. The nation refused to tolerate a violent change of foreign policy, which was to involve them in a new war against their allies of yesterday and in a struggle with Denmark in the interests of the House of Holstein. And they disliked Peter, who was vulgar and vicious as well as foolish.

## CATHARINE THE GREAT

The folly of Peter III. gave his wife, Sophia of Anhalt-Zerbst, who had taken the name of Catharine when she entered the Orthodox Church, the chance of ridding herself of a husband she disliked and of



From the painting]

### AN INCIDENT DURING THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW.

[By G. Dord.

In the early part of October, 1812, Napoleon and his army began the memorable and disastrous retreat from Moscow. The French troops, inadequately equipped and badly fed, were in no condition to withstand the rigours of the Russian winter then imminent. The flanks of the army were constantly harried by Cossacks, who are here depicted cutting off some French stragglers.



making herself mistress of Russia. The Tsar was credited with the intention of sending his wife to a convent, of declaring that the son she had borne him, Paul, was not his but her lover's, and of making his mistress Tsaritsa. In July, 1762, a bloodless revolution placed the Empress on the throne. Conspirators brought her from Peterhof to St. Petersburg, where the guards swore fealty to her. She was immediately proclaimed Autocrat in the Kazan Cathedral, and at the head of twenty thousand men, went to Oranienbaum, where Peter was carousing with his German comrades. The Tsar was powerless and consented to abdicate. A week later, without the order but with the connivance of Catharine, he was assassinated. The Empress's only other rival, Ivan VI., was murdered in the fortress of Schlüsselburg two years later, but the guilt of this crime cannot be laid at Catharine's door.



*From the painting]*

*[By Ferdinand Bolzard.*

#### STRAGGLERS OF THE FRENCH ARMY.

During the retreat from Moscow the French army had to contend with a new enemy of whose strength they had hitherto no conception: namely, the cold, which was intense and awful. Soldiers were lying on the route, dead and dying, or dragging themselves along painfully, only to freeze to death sooner or later under the shadow of an overturned wagon or gun-carriage.

The Empress did not reverse Peter's foreign policy. Designs on the territory of the kingdom of Poland made it necessary for Catharine and Frederick to remain on friendly terms. The causes that led to the downfall of Poland will be dealt with in the history of that country. It will be sufficient here to indicate the part played by Russia in the Polish tragedy. In 1772 an agreement was come to between Russia, Prussia and Austria, and these three powers seized about one-third of the territory of Poland. A second and third partition of Poland took place in 1793 and 1795, whereby Russia was enriched by vast territories.

During Catharine's reign there were two wars with Turkey, the traditional enemy of Russia. In the first of these wars, provoked by Turkey, the Russians overran the Crimea, and occupied it in 1771. In 1783 the peninsula was formally united to the Russian Empire. The brilliant victory of Kagul, where the Russians defeated a vastly superior Turkish force, was eclipsed by the daring naval expedition



*From the painting]*

#### MARSHAL NEY SUPPORTING THE FRENCH REARGUARD.

[By Iron.

The defence of the French rearguard during the army's retreat from Moscow was entrusted to Marshal Ney. Many skirmishes were fought with the Cossacks, who constantly harassed the French by fierce cavalry charges. The most important of these actions took place on the 17th November, 1812. Ney's force, which looked more formidable on account of the fog, numbered only nine thousand men. The Russian general ordered Ney to surrender, but the French troops made a furious onslaught, which was repulsed by the enemy who, however, were so impressed by the audacity of the attack that they did not pursue their advantage.



*From the painting]*

#### THE BATTLE OF BRIENNE, 1814.

*[By J. J. Schnörer.*

On the 29th January, 1814, Napoleon surprised some of Blücher's troops at Brienne, and the Prussian marshal was very nearly made prisoner. But a few days later Blücher, having obtained reinforcements, attacked and routed the French at La Rothière.

of 1770. The Russian fleet sailed from the Baltic to the Mediterranean, under the command of Alexis Orlov, and after defeating the Turkish fleet at the harbour of Chios, completely annihilated it in the port of Tchesmé. The Russian admiral had the help of three distinguished British colleagues—Dugdale, Grieg and Elphinstone. To the last of these is due the chief credit for the victory, which was not followed up, as he urged, by an attack on Constantinople. The war was ended in 1774 by the Peace of Kutchuk-Kunadji, by which Russia obtained important territories. The second, and more severe, struggle with Turkey broke out in 1787 and ended in 1792, when the Treaty of Jassy was signed. Russia had now acquired the northern shores of the Black Sea to the borders of the Caucasus and the river Dniester had become a Russian boundary. The city of Odessa, founded in 1794, is the lasting memorial of Catharine's victories over the Turks. A short war with Sweden (1788–1790) increased the difficulty of prosecuting the Turkish war. The Peace of Värälä, which ended it, gave no advantage to either side.

Catharine had foes at home as well as abroad. The discontent of the lower classes was profound. The peasants had become the chattels of the nobles and advertisements of the sale of serfs appeared in the newspapers. The Empress was a reformer, but she was also a German usurper; she advocated the emancipation of the serfs, but she did not dare to estrange the gentry by depriving them of the economic advantages of a system she disliked. Risings of the peasantry were frequent in her reign. A formidable revolt, which broke out in 1773, was led by a Cossack, called Pugatchev, who gave himself out to be Peter III. Malcontents of every kind flocked to the standard of the false Peter, and it was only with great difficulty that the rebels were finally defeated and their leader captured.

It fell to Catharine to continue the work begun by Peter the Great. He had placed the Orthodox Church under the control of the Crown, and the Empress still further reduced its power by secularizing the church lands and making the clergy the paid servants of the State. Peter had forced his subjects

to adopt the customs of Western Europe, and compelled the nobles to educate themselves. Catharine continued his policy by founding educational establishments and by promoting letters and the arts. In one year alone she expended a million roubles in the purchase of Flemish and Italian paintings. She was a woman of virile intellect and eagerly sought the friendship of the notable thinkers of her age. She corresponded regularly with Voltaire. But while her efforts helped to give the nobles a veneer of Parisian culture, the lower classes remained as ignorant as they had been in the days of Ivan the Terrible. No sovereign has ever been less dominated by the servants of the Crown than Catharine. Her ministers were her instruments. Her generals carried out her designs. Potemkin, the hero of the second Turkish war, must share the glory of his victories with his imperial mistress. And to Catharine alone must be given the credit of the masterly conduct of Russia's foreign policy, which is the glory of her reign. When she died in 1796 she had increased the area of her empire by some three hundred thousand square miles.

## PAUL I.

Catharine the Great was succeeded by her son Paul, a born despot, whose hatred of Jacobinism was so intense that he forbade the use of the words "society" and "citizen," stopped the importation of European books, and compelled those of his subjects who were in foreign parts to return to Russia. He allied himself with Turkey, England, Austria and Naples against France. A Russian army, under Suvarov was sent into Italy in 1799, where fortune favoured their arms. When the old general led the Russian forces into Switzerland he experienced severe reverses, but the heroic retreat by which he saved the remnants of a depleted army added to his glory. Friction with Austria and England induced the Emperor to reverse his policy and to make friends with Bonaparte, to whom he propounded an elaborate plan for a Franco-Russian invasion of India. The incapacity and tyranny of Paul had made him hated. His subjects heard without regret of his assassination in the night of March 23rd, 1801.



Photo by]

[Underwood & Underwood.

### CHURCH OF THE REDEEMER, MOSCOW

This church, built in the form of a Greek cross, was erected in 1839. It is surmounted by five gilded domes; outside the walls are sheathed in marble, and there are twelve bronze portals, three in each façade

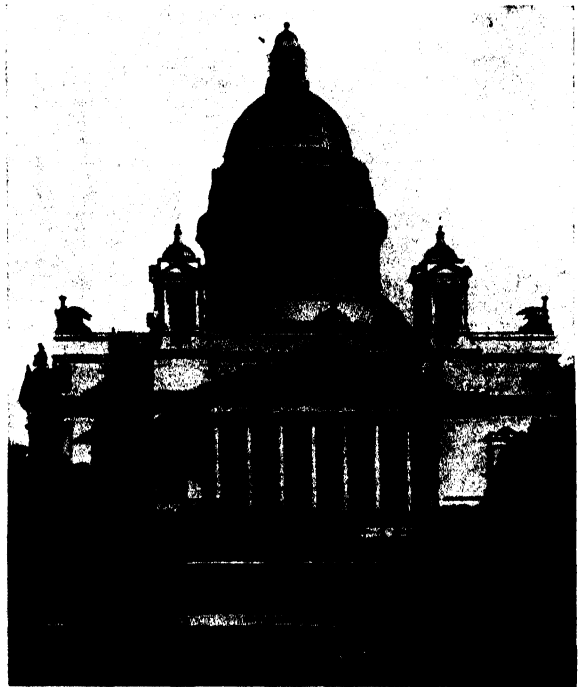


Photo by]

[Underwood & Underwood.

### ST. ISAAC'S CATHEDRAL.

The largest church in Petrograd, the Cathedra of St. Isaac was built between 1819 and 1858. Cruciform in shape, the building is surmounted by an enormous gilded dome, from which a magnificent view of the city can be obtained

## ALEXANDER I.

Paul I. was succeeded by his son Alexander, who was then twenty-five. In 1805 he joined the coalition against Napoleon, and in December of that year twenty-one thousand Russians fell in the battle of Austerlitz. War was ended by the Treaty of Pressburg, but Russia entered into the fourth coalition against Napoleon, and in June, 1807, the Russians sustained a severe defeat in the battle of Eylau. Ten days later Alexander and Napoleon met at Tilsit. Their conversation resulted in the conclusion of a secret treaty, which has been called the treacherous peace, for both the parties to it sacrificed their allies and tarnished their honour. The Treaty of Tilsit, which was exceedingly unpopular in Russia, involved Russia in three wars—with England, Sweden, and with Austria. The war with Sweden resulted in the acquisition by Russia of the whole of Finland. The chief effect of the war with England was to



THE BATTLE OF INKERMAN, 1854.

This engagement, fought on the 5th November, was, as yet, the most important in the Crimean War. Two Russian columns in massed formation, consisting of thirty-six thousand men, converged, amidst rain and fog, in the direction of the English encampments. Although, fortunately, each column acted on its own initiative, the English were in extreme danger until, reinforced by the French, they succeeded in repulsing the enemy.

deprive Russia of an important market, a material loss which increased the discontent which Alexander's foreign policy had produced in Russia.

Various causes had led to coolness in the relations of Napoleon and Alexander, and finally there was a complete estrangement between them. In May, 1812, the insatiable conqueror left Paris for Dresden, on his way to impose his will on Russia. By September Napoleon was in Moscow, after having defeated the Russians at Smolensk and in the battle of Borodino. But Moscow had been evacuated, and Napoleon was driven from the Kremlin by a conflagration which threatened to destroy the city and the French army within its walls. Alexander was silent and refused to enter into negotiations with his enemy. In the middle of October the French began the long march to the frontier in which so many were to perish. Of the 678,000 of the *grande armée*, only some 80,000 returned.

To overthrow the monarch who put might before right became the single aim of Alexander. He had his triumph in March, 1814, when the Allies entered Paris, and he passed in great pomp through the streets of the city with the King of Prussia at his side. But the triumph had been a costly one, for both at the assault of Paris and in the campaign of the preceding year, at Kulm and at Leipzig, the losses of the Russians were serious.



*From the painting*

### THE CHARGE OF THE LIGHT BRIGADE · BALAKLAVA, 1854.

*[By Morin.]*

During the course of the battle of Balaklava some British guns had been captured by the Russians and orders were given to Lord Cardigan, commanding the Light Brigade, to try and prevent the enemy retaining possession of them. This order was misunderstood, and the cavalry, exposed to a terrible fire from the Russian artillery, charged along a valley over a mile long. A portion of the Light Brigade rode up to and through the enemy's batteries, but out of a total of over six hundred only a small number survived.

Alexander I. died at Taganrog in 1825. During his reign the territory of the Russian Empire was greatly increased. Besides the acquisition of Finnish territory, Georgia was annexed, and the war with Persia that resulted ended by the province of Shirvan being incorporated in Russia. The Duchy of Warsaw was added to the Polish possessions of Russia. It had been the dream of Alexander's youth to reunite the unfortunate Polish of Alexander universities were founded at St. Petersburg, Kazan and Kharkov; but while learning



CAUCASIAN COSSACKS.

The Cossacks are not a distinct stock, but are descended from nomadic tribes which occupied the frontier districts of Russia. The only Cossacks now in European Russia are those in the lower valley of the Don and the Ural Mountains.

nation beneath his sceptre. The realization of his wish was frustrated at the Congress of Vienna, when the happiness of the Poles was callously and vainly sacrificed to obtain a balance of power in Europe. Nothing is more characteristic of him than the manifesto known as the Holy Alliance, a pledge to base home and foreign politics on Christian principles, which he invited the sovereigns of Europe to sign in 1815.

During the reign



A GEORGIAN COSSACK CHIEF.

Georgia was formerly an independent kingdom in Transcaucasia. In 1492 political relations commenced between this state and Russia, and in 1801 Georgia was converted into a Russian province.



AN OLD CIRCASSIAN CHIEF

The Cherkesses, or Circassians, are a people inhabiting Circassia, the north-western district of the Caucasus. This race differs from the other tribes of this region in origin and language.

was encouraged in this manner, the adoption of the liberal ideas of Western Europe was sternly repressed. Hence Russian society became honeycombed with secret societies.

## NICHOLAS I.

At the death of Alexander, the heir to the throne was his brother, Constantine. Nicholas, a younger son of Paul I., at once took the oath of allegiance to his brother, who was at Warsaw, and it was administered to the army and the civil authorities in St. Petersburg. It then became known that Constantine had renounced his right to the throne during Alexander's reign in favour of Nicholas. After three weeks of uncertainty, the younger brother yielded to the wish of the elder and announced his accession. The confusion created by an unprecedented situation was the opportunity of the members of the societies which were secretly working in the interests of liberty and constitutional government. On December 26th some regiments took the oath to Nicholas, while others refused, under the influence of



*From the painting]*

*[By W. Werschtachagin.*

## DEFENCE OF THE SHIPKA PASS, 1878.

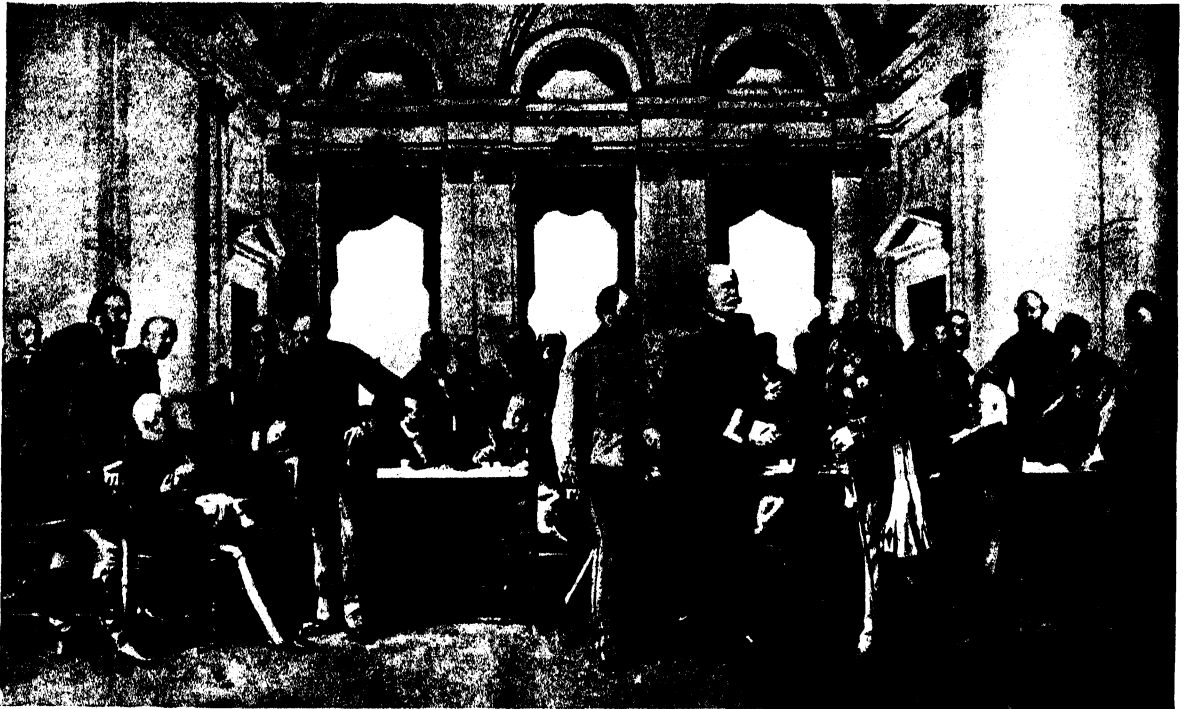
The Turks resolved at all costs to recapture the Shipka Pass, which was defended by a small Russian detachment. For seven days the Russians, whose ranks were thinning fast, resisted a series of furious attacks delivered by the entire Turkish army until the arrival of reinforcements convinced the Turks that their strenuous efforts were unavailing.

their officers, who shouted "Hurrah for the Emperor Constantine!" and "Long live the Constitution!" Thanks to his energy and determination, Nicholas quelled the insurrection, in which members of many of the greatest families of Russia were involved. Five of the Decembrists, as the conspirators were called, died on the gallows and others were exiled to Siberia; but this unsuccessful conspiracy may be regarded as the beginning of the regeneration of Russia, a movement which Nicholas did his utmost to arrest. It has been truly said that his reign was a constant protest against the progress of the world. He forbade young men to study in Western universities, unless they received special permission. He forbade the teaching of philosophy in the universities except by ecclesiastics. The censorship of the Press and of books was of the utmost severity. No means of checking the infiltration of Liberal ideas was rejected. The Church was placed under the government of a general of Hussars, whose persecution of the Uniats, Catholics of the Greek rite, horrified Western Europe.

In 1826 war broke out between Russia and Persia, and ended in 1828 when Russia acquired the provinces of Erivan and Nakhitchevan. In 1827 Russia, France and England decided to intervene in the struggle between Turkey and Greece. On October 20th of that year the allied fleets annihilated the



Turkish fleet in the battle of Navarino. In 1830 the Poles, whose constitutional liberties had not been respected, rebelled. The history of this insurrection will be told elsewhere. At the request of the Emperor Francis Joseph, a Russian army entered Hungary in 1848 to repress a revolt. In 1854 England and France took up arms against Russia in behalf of Turkey, whose sovereign rights were endangered by the claim of Russia to intervene in favour of the Christian subjects of the Sultan. The most notable events of the Crimean war were the battles of Alma, Balaklava, Inkerman, Tchernaya and the siege of Sevastopol. Nicholas I. died on March 2nd, 1855. His son and successor, Alexander II., signed the preliminaries of peace on February 1st of the following year. The Treaty of Paris, which settled the questions the war had raised, was signed on March 30th, 1856.



*From the painting]*

*[By A. von Werner.*

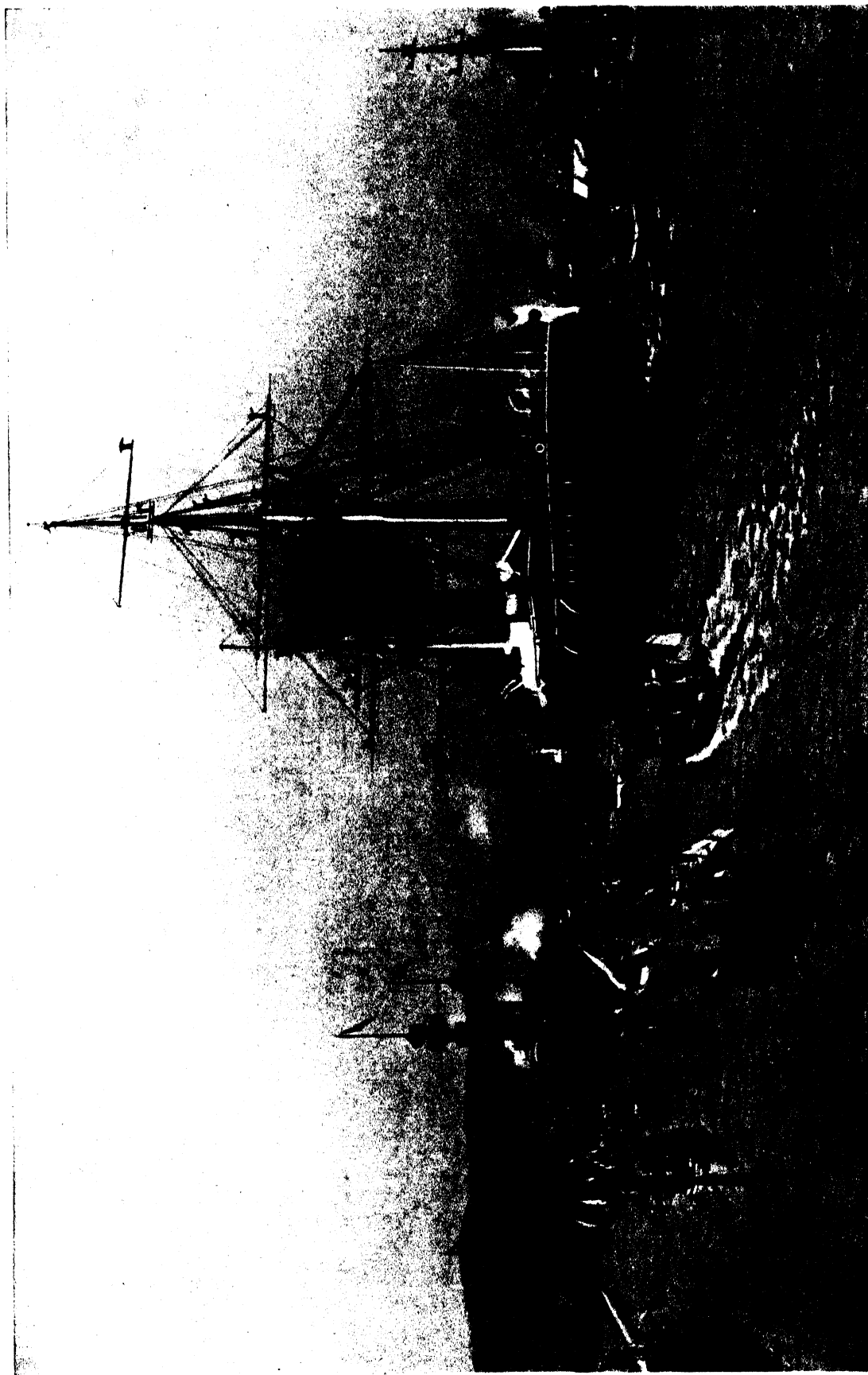
#### THE BERLIN CONGRESS, 1878

The Great Powers of Europe were dissatisfied with the terms of the treaty by which the Russo-Turkish war had been brought to a conclusion. Representatives of the Crowned Heads of Europe met in congress at Berlin on the 3rd July, 1878, under the presidency of Prince Bismarck.

#### ALEXANDER II.

Alexander II. began his reign in a liberal spirit by making a number of concessions to public opinion, including the pardon of the surviving Decembrists and the Polish conspirators of 1830. The glory of his reign is the emancipation of the serfs of Russia, who numbered nearly forty-six millions. The manifesto of 1861, by which serfdom was finally abolished, gave the Emperor the right to the title by which he was affectionately called—the Saviour Tsar. A reform of the judicial system followed in 1866, and in 1870 the municipal system was reorganized. These reforms encouraged the hope that the nation would be allowed to take part in the task of government. Reaction, however, followed reform, and in consequence, an attempt was made to obtain political freedom by violence. The Emperor's life was attempted on several occasions, and on March 13th, 1881, the Saviour Tsar was killed by an assassin's bomb. But revolutionaries could not kill the peasant's love of his deliverer. "We kissed his hand," wrote a peasant, who brought a wreath to put on the Emperor's bier, "and there he lay, our Martyr Tsar, with a calm and loving expression on his face, as if he, our Little Father, had fallen asleep."

A revolution in Poland had disturbed the interior life of the empire in this reign, and from 1877 to 1878 there was war between Russia and Turkey, which was ended by the Peace of San Stefano and led



*From the painting*

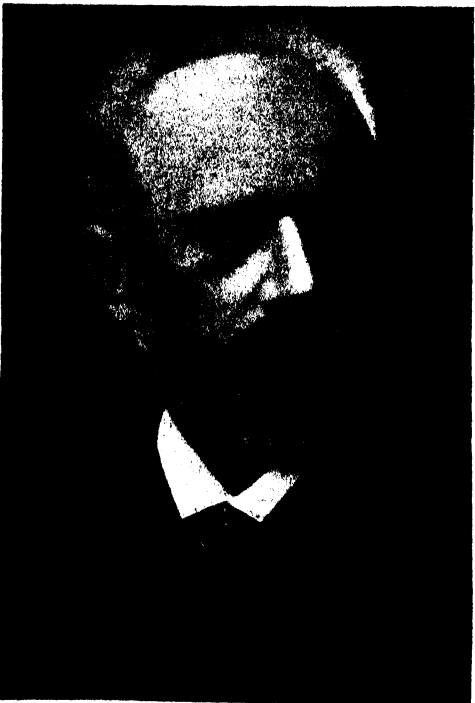
#### VISIT OF THE RUSSIAN FLEET TO TOULON, 1893.

In 1893 French public opinion was very agitated over the Panama affair, but the friendship with Russia in view steadied the general situation immensely. All France was under the glamour of the preliminary manifestations of the Russian alliance. This was seen in the wild enthusiasm which was prevalent in Paris when the Russian fleet, under Admiral Avelane, arrived at Toulon to return the visit which the French fleet had paid to Kronstadt in 1891.

*[By Paul Joert.]*

**COUNT DE WITTE**

Count Sergius de Witte, born in 1849, is the Russian statesman and expert in the question of railway construction and management. In 1906 he retired into private life.

**TSCHAIKOVSKY.**

Peter Tchaikovsky (1840-1893), the famous Russian composer, studied law before he devoted himself to music. A pupil of Rubinstein, he wrote the "Case Noisette" suite and the opera, "Pique Dame."

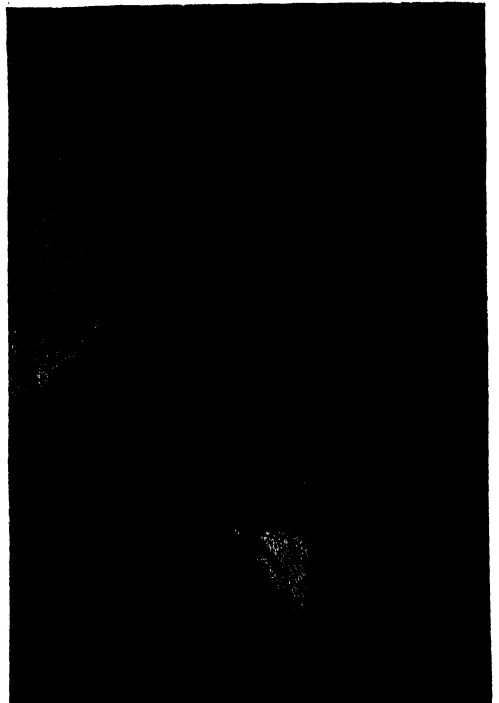
to the assembly of the Congress of Berlin.

**ALEXANDER III.  
AND NICHOLAS II.**

A manifesto of the new Emperor, Alexander III., who was influenced by his tutor, Mr. Pobiedonostsev, the famous Procurator of the Holy Synod, warned his subjects to abandon the hope of constitutional reform. It was left to his successor, Nicholas II., who ascended the throne in 1894, to give the nation a form of representative government. The disasters of the war with Japan, which began in 1904, gave the Emperor the opportunity of making reforms which, in other circumstances, would have been resented by some elements of the nation, and especially by the clergy. On April 17th, 1905 (O.S.), he issued on his own initiative a manifesto granting religious

**COUNT TOLSTOI**

Leo Tolstoy (1828-1910) was the well-known Russian novelist and social reformer. He led an ascetic life in his latter years and devoted most of his wealth to charity.

**PROFESSOR METCHNIKOV.**

Iliya Metchnikov, the famous Russian zoologist and scientist, was born on May 15th, 1845. He is professor at the Pasteur Institute, Paris, and was awarded the Nobel Prize for medicine in 1908.



A HAND-TO-HAND STRUGGLE IN THE EARTHWORKS: PORT ARTHUR

The object of Japan in the Russo-Japanese war of 1904 was to win such victories as would establish her political ascendancy in the Far East beyond challenge. Japan's hardest task was the siege of Port Arthur, and frequently during the sapping of the Russian defences the adversaries would get so close together that the breaking in of an earthen partition brought them face to face.

liberty to his subjects. This measure was disliked by the clergy, who had been accustomed to have their flocks kept in the fold of the Orthodox Church by the police. It gave great satisfaction in Poland and Lithuania, where it is estimated that a quarter of a million persons, who had been forced to join the Orthodox Church, were formally recognized as Catholics. The Mussulman subjects of Russia also welcomed the reform, and twenty-nine thousand nominal members of the Orthodox Church were registered as Mohammedans. The defeats at Mukden and at Tsushima prepared the way for further concessions.

A scheme for a consultative assembly was propounded, but found no favour. Unrest and revolutionary activity were general, and the Peace of Portsmouth, signed on August 23rd, if premature from a military point of view, was necessary to enable the Government to devote itself to the restoration of order at home. A general strike, ordered by the committee of the Union of Unions, which commanded the obedience of a network of unions of peasants, workmen and professional men and women, brought the life of the nation to a standstill for three momentous

present franchise. Henceforth no laws can be permanently imposed on the Russian people without the consent of the Imperial Duma and the Council of Empire. It can hardly be doubted that the declaration of war against Russia made by Germany on August 1st, 1914, which has united the discordant elements of the Russian Empire and strengthened the ties of affection uniting the people to the throne, will be a powerful factor in the process of developing the constitutional life of the Empire and safeguarding the liberties of the nations within its borders.

It may justly be said that the study of Russian history leads one to forget the backwardness of Russia in amazement at the rapidity of her progress since she turned her face to the light of the West.



NICHOLAS II.

Nicholas II. was born at Petrograd on May 18th, 1868, and became Emperor of Russia in 1894, marrying in the same year Princess Alix of Hesse, a granddaughter of Queen Victoria. The new Emperor sought to preserve peace in foreign relations, and continued the same policy in home affairs as that of his father. In 1894 the Franco-Russian *entente cordiale* was transformed into a formal alliance.

days of October, and on the 17th (O.S.) the famous Manifesto was issued by the Emperor, on the advice of Count Witte, promising civic and political liberty and a constitution. What the violence of revolutionaries could never have obtained was yielded to the united and peaceful expression of the will of the nation. In the spring of 1906 the Tsar opened his first parliament. Its life was a short one, and after the ministers had attempted to work with a second Duma, elected on the same franchise, a new electoral law was introduced, and is the basis of the

# DATES OF SERBIAN HISTORY

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
From the settlement of the Serbs in the Balkan Peninsula to the establishment of the Nemanya dynasty.	634	The Serbs, invited by the Byzantine emperor Heraclius, settle in the Balkan Peninsula and occupy the region now known as Serbia, Montenegro, Bosnia, Herzegovina and part of Macedonia.
	875	The Serbs adopt Christianity.
	924	The Bulgarian Tsar Simeon conquers Serbia.
	931	The Serb Zhupans acknowledge the suzerainty of the Byzantine emperors.
	1169	Stephen Nemanya, the Zhupan of Raskia, unites most of the Serb provinces, and founds a dynasty which reigns for over two hundred years.
	1222	Stephen, the son of the first Nemanya, is formally crowned King of Serbia.
	1242	Accession of King Urosh I.
	1282	Accession of King Urosh II.
From the accession of Stephen Dushan to the conquest of Serbia by the Turks.	1331	Accession of Stephen Dushan, the greatest ruler of Serbia in the Middle Ages.
	1346	Stephen Dushan crowned Emperor or Tsar of "the Serbs and the Greeks."
	1349	Dushan issues the famous Code of Laws which bears his name.
	1355	Stephen Dushan dies, while preparing to conquer Constantinople. Accession of his son, Urosh.
	1371	Death of Tsar Urosh. End of the Nemanya dynasty.
	1374	Knez Lazar is elected ruler of the Serbs.
	1389	The Battle of Kosovo, where Sultan Murad I. defeated the Serbs, who lost in consequence the independence of their country. The Sultan appoints Stephen, the son of Lazar, who fell in the battle, as ruler of Serbia under his suzerainty.
	1427	George Brankovich is appointed ruler of Serbia.
	1459	Sultan Mohammed II. definitely incorporates Serbia in the Turkish empire.
	1462	Bosnia, another Serb Kingdom, is annexed by Turkey.
From the beginning of the struggle of independence until Serbia becomes an autonomous principality	1718	Turkey cedes Serbia to Austria.
	1739	Austria compelled to give back Serbia to Turkey.
	1788	The Serbs help Austria in the war with Turkey.
	1804	The Serbs, under their chosen leader Kara George, revolt against the Turks. The revolt is successful.
	1807	The Sultan offers autonomy to Serbia and to appoint Kara George as Prince. Kara George refuses and continues the war.
	1813	The Turks invade and reconquer Serbia. Kara George flees from the country. Milosh Obrenovich is appointed by the Turks governor of central Serbia.
	1815	Milosh starts the second revolt against the Turks.
	1816	The Sultan grants practical autonomy to Serbia.
	1817	Kara George returns to Serbia and is treacherously murdered by agents of Milosh at the demand of the Turkish authorities. This begins the feud between the family of Karageorgevich and that of Obrenovich. The National Assembly proclaims Milosh as hereditary Prince of Serbia.
	1830	The Sultan recognizes the autonomy of Serbia and the title of Milosh.
	1838	Under the pressure of Russia and Turkey, Milosh issues a constitution which greatly limits the power of the Prince and creates a Senate with extensive legislative powers.
From the abdication of Milosh Obrenovich until Serbia becomes independent.	1839	Milosh Obrenovich compelled to abdicate. His son, Milan, is called to the throne, but dies after a few weeks. Michael, the other son of Milosh, is elected Prince.
	1842	Michael Obrenovich abdicates. Alexander Karageorgevich is elected Prince.
	1858	Alexander is dethroned and the exiled Milosh Obrenovich is reinstated on the throne.
	1860	Milosh dies. Michael Obrenovich ascends the throne a second time.
	1862	A collision between the people of Belgrade and the Turkish garrison in the fortress produces a riot and bloodshed. An agitation for the removal of these garrisons now starts.
	1867	At the demand of Prince Michael the Turks withdraw the garrisons they kept at Belgrade and other fortified places.
	1868	Prince Michael is assassinated in a park near Belgrade by partisans of the Karageorgevich family. Milan, the only surviving Obrenovich, is elected to the throne. Being only fourteen years old, three regents are appointed.
	1869	A new constitution, the work of Ristich, the first regent, is introduced.
	1872	Prince Milan comes of age.
	1876	Milan declares war against Turkey. Defeated by the Turks.
	1877	Peace with Turkey concluded (March). Serbia again declares war on Turkey (December).
	1878	Prince Milan captures Nish, and occupies Pirot, Leskovats, Vranja and other places. Serbia declared independent with an addition of territory by the Treaty of Berlin.
From the Proclamation of Serbia as a Kingdom until the extinction of the Obrenovich dynasty.	1882	Milan proclaimed King and Serbia raised to the rank of a Kingdom. King Milan marries Nathalie Keschko, the daughter of a colonel in the Russian army.
	1883	A peasant insurrection breaks out in South-Eastern Serbia on account of the new military law and new taxation; soon suppressed.
	1885	Milan declares war on Bulgaria. The Serbs are defeated at Slivnitsa and Pirot.
	1886	Peace between Serbia and Bulgaria signed at Bucharest.
	1888	After continuous quarrels King Milan divorces his wife, Queen Nathalie. King Milan grants a new constitution, one of the most democratic in Europe.
	1889	Milan abdicates in favour of his son, Alexander. A regency appointed.
	1890	Ex-King Milan agrees to live out of Serbia until his son becomes of age.
	1893	Alexander by a <i>coup d'etat</i> proclaims himself of age and dismisses the regents.
	1894	King Alexander by a <i>coup d'etat</i> suspends the constitution of 1888 and re-establishes the old constitution of 1869.
	1898	Ex-King Milan is appointed commander-in-chief of the Serbian army.
	1899	Great political unrest and agitation against the dynasty.
	1900	Marriage of King Alexander with Draga Mashin; very unpopular.
	1901	Ex-King Milan, who had been banished from Serbia on account of his opposition to the marriage of his son, dies suddenly at Vienna. King Alexander grants a new liberal constitution.
	1903	As a result of a military conspiracy the King and Queen were cruelly murdered in the palace on June 10th. The Obrenovich family becomes extinct. Parliament elects Prince Peter Karageorgevich as King.
From the accession of King Peter Karageorgevich to the present day.	1904	Coronation of King Peter in the cathedral of Belgrade. Mr. Pashich, the leading and most experienced statesman of Serbia, is appointed Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs.
	1906	Commercial convention with Bulgaria concluded.
	1907	A commercial treaty between England and Serbia signed.
	1908	Great indignation on account of the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria. Serbia demands territorial compensation, which is refused by Austria and Turkey.
	1909	Great European crisis. Serbia formally renounces all claims to compensation.
	1910	King Peter visits Russia and is received by the Tsar at Tsarskoe Selo.
	1912	War between the Balkan Allies and Turkey. The Serbs win the great battles of Kumanovo, Uskub and Monastir.
	1913	Austria prevents Serbia from acquiring any territory on the Adriatic Sea. War with Bulgaria. Treaty of Bucharest concluded.
1914		Austria declares war on Serbia, after the assassination of the Archduke Ferdinand at Sarajevo.

## CHAPTER XXX

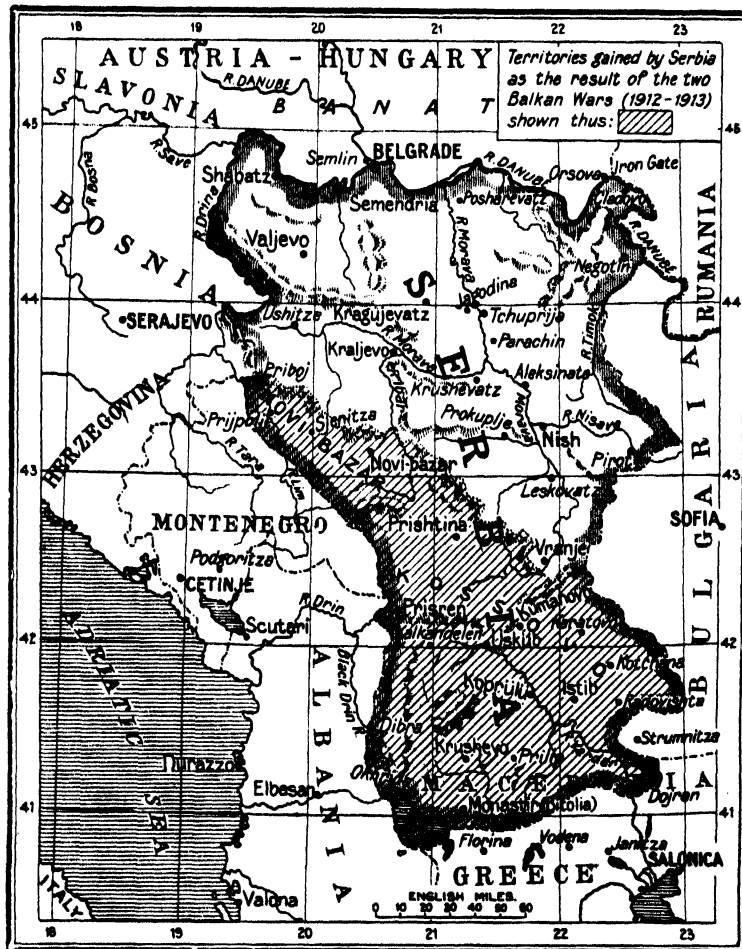
## THE SERBS. By OSCAR BRILLIANT

THE Serbs belong to the great family of the Slavonic nations and are closely related to the Russians, Poles, Bohemians and Bulgarians. They first settled in the Balkan Peninsula during the first half of the seventh century, coming here at the invitation of the Byzantine emperor Heraclius. Formerly they were living on the northern slopes of the Carpathians, from which the Croats, the twin brothers of the Serbs, derive their name. The region settled by the Serbs included Serbia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Montenegro, and the northern part of Macedonia. In the following century the Serbs, together with their neighbours the Bulgarians, adopted Christianity.

Politically the Serbs did not form one single state, but were divided into a number of independent counties, each under a chief called Zhupan, who recognized the authority of the Byzantine emperor at Constantinople. Only very rarely did it happen that one Zhupan succeeded in uniting the whole country under his rule, and this only for a short time.

At last in 1169, Stephen Nemanya, the Zhupan of Rashka, the present district of Novi-Bazar, succeeded in uniting under his sceptre most of the Serb provinces, and in establishing a dynasty which ruled over Serbia until 1371. The rulers of the Nemanya dynasty, by wise diplomatic and military measures, established a strong Serb kingdom, which played an important part in the international relations of the period. The greatest sovereign of this dynasty was Stephen Dushan (1331-1355).

The reign of Stephen Dushan marks the zenith of Serbia, and is the most glorious period in the history of the Southern Slavs. He conquered Macedonia, Albania and Northern Greece and established his dominion from the shores



MAP OF SERBIA

As a result of the two Balkan Wars Serbia has nearly doubled the extent of her territory. The kingdom has now an area of 33,891 square miles, with a population of over 4,500,000 inhabitants. On the north and west it is surrounded by provinces peopled with the Serb race.

of the Adriatic to within a short distance of Adrianople. As Bulgaria also was his vassal, his empire included the greater part of the Balkan Peninsula, and in 1346 he took the title of "Tsar of the Serbs and the Greeks." Stephen Dushan gave his extensive and rapidly-acquired empire a good organization, and endowed it with a code of civil and penal law which ensured to its inhabitants freedom and security of life and property. He encouraged trade, and was besides a patron of arts and science. Realizing the danger that



*Painted specially for this work*

[by J. H. Valda.]

**TSAR MICHAEL SHISHMAN OF BULGARIA KILLED AT THE BATTLE OF VELBUZHD, 1330**

The long outstanding rivalry between Serbia and Bulgaria led to war between them in 1330. In the battle fought near Velbuzhd the Bulgarians were defeated and Tsar Michael Shishman was killed. Since that time, although Bulgaria retained her independence, she came under the practical domination of Serbia, whose lead she followed in her foreign policy as well as in her internal affairs.

threatened the peoples of the Balkans from the rising power of the Turks in Asia Minor, he decided to supersede the weak Byzantine emperors and to make Constantinople the capital of his empire. He hoped to beat back from that stronghold the tide of the Turkish advance. But whilst making elaborate preparations for this expedition he suddenly died (1355).

The empire founded by Stephen Dushan collapsed soon after his death. Under his son and successor, Urosh V., the various provinces, and in the first place those newly-conquered, separated and became independent, and the power of Serbia was broken. With the death of Urosh in 1371 the Nemanya dynasty became extinct. In 1374 the northern provinces of Serbia elected as their ruler Lazar, the husband of Militsa, a relation of the extinct dynasty. Knez—that is Count—Lazar worked to organize a coalition against the Turks, but before it could be arranged, Sultan Murad I. invaded Serbia. The Serbian army was defeated at Kossovo, on the famous "Field of the Blackbirds," on the 15th of June, 1389. Knez Lazar and the flower of the Serb nobility fell in this battle, which has left a lasting impression upon the Serbs, who consider that they lost their independence on that battlefield. The battle of Kossovo figures prominently in the ballads and folk-lore of the Serbs.

Serbia continued to exist as a separate state under the suzerainty of the Sultan up to 1459, when it was definitely annexed to the Turkish empire. Three years later another Serb kingdom, Bosnia, was also conquered by the Turks. From this time until the beginning of the nineteenth century the lands inhabited by the Serb race formed an integral part of the Turkish empire, and Serbia itself was known as the Pashalik of Belgrade. A great number of Serbs emigrated to Hungary and peopled the Banat and the region between the Save and the Drave. During these three and a half centuries of Turkish occupation





AN INCIDENT IN STEPHEN DUSHAN'S CAMPAIGN, 1336.

Stephen Dushan was the greatest ruler Serbia had during the Middle Ages. As a result of several successful campaigns his empire comprised nearly the whole of the Balkan Peninsula.

Joseph II., in alliance with Russia, started his unsuccessful war against Turkey in 1788. At last in 1804 the Serbs, driven to desperation by the misdeeds of the Janissaries, revolted and chose as their leader George Petrovich, of the village of Topola, called by the Turks Kara George, or Black George. From the very beginning the revolt was successful, and after a great victory against the Turks gained in 1806, the Sultan offered to grant Serbia autonomy and to recognize Kara George as Prince. But Kara George continued the struggle as an ally of Russia until the invasion of Russia by Napoleon compelled her to conclude with Turkey the Treaty of Bucharest (1812). This treaty practically left Serbia under the direct rule of Turkey and in the following year the Turks invaded the country with a powerful army. The Serbs, exhausted by the continual fighting since 1804, could not resist this onslaught. Kara George and the great majority of chiefs fled from the country, and Serbia became again a Turkish pashalik. Only one chief, namely, Milosh Obrenovich, refused to leave Serbia, and the Turks, wishing to pacify the country, arranged terms of peace with him and appointed him ruler of central Serbia. Milosh kept peace only for about a year and a half, and in 1815, on Palm Sunday, proclaimed at Takovo a new insurrection. The Turkish troops were defeated on several occasions, and Milosh, by clever negotiations, obtained from the Sultan in 1816 terms which made Serbia practically an autonomous country.

In the following year Kara George secretly returned to Serbia. At the demand of the Turkish authorities Milosh gave orders for the assassination of Kara George. In the early morning of July 13th the famous leader of the first Serbian Revolution was treacherously,

the Serbs suffered great hardships at the hands of the Turkish officials and soldiery. But the Turks did not attempt to convert the Serbs to Mahommedanism, neither did they interfere with the village organization of the people. The Serbs were thus able to preserve their religion and language and to save their nationality.

By the treaty of Passarowitz (1718) Serbia was ceded to Austria, but twenty years later it reverted again to Turkey. In all subsequent wars with Turkey Serbian volunteers fought in the ranks of the Austrian army. The hour of deliverance seemed to have approached when the Emperor



VIEW OF NISH.

The town of Nish, owing to its strategical situation, has been the scene of many battles during the last few centuries. Prince Milan captured it from the Turks during the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78.



*Painted specially for this work*

#### THE BATTLE OF KOSOVO, 1389

The Battle of Kosovo is one of the decisive battles of history. Here the Turks under Sultan Murad defeated, after a furious struggle, the Serbs under Knez Lazar, who fell on the battle-field. As a result of this battle the Turks became masters of the Balkan Peninsula. No event has left a more lasting impression upon the Serbs than the fatal Battle of Kosovo, when they lost their independence, and the anniversary, June 15th, has always been kept by the Serb race as a memorial day of mourning.

*[By J. H. Valda.]*



*From the painting]*

#### THE EXODUS FROM SERBIA IN 1690

At the invitation of the Austrian emperor, Leopold I., thirty thousand Serbian families left Serbia in order to escape from Turkish rule and emigrated into Southern Hungary, where their descendants have lived to the present day.

*[By P. Ivanovich.*

murdered while he was sleeping. From that day began the feud between the Karageorgevich and Obrenovich families, which has filled such a large place in the history of Serbia during the nineteenth century. Shortly afterwards the National Assembly proclaimed Milosh Obrenovich as hereditary Prince of Serbia, and this was recognized later (1830) by the Sultan. Milosh now began the organization of Serbia as a modern European state, and gave special attention to the development of its agricultural resources. Milosh reigned as a despot and created many enemies. He was forced to abdicate in 1839 in favour of his eldest son, Milan, who, however, died a few weeks later. His youngest son, Michael, was then called to the throne, but he also was compelled to abdicate in 1842. The National Assembly then elected Alexander Karageorgevich, the youngest son of the leader of the first Serbian Revolution. Under him Serbia enjoyed a number of years of internal peace, during which the country greatly advanced economically and intellectually. But this pacific policy and his strong leanings towards Austria and Turkey determined the National Assembly to dethrone him and to recall from exile old Milosh Obrenovich (1859). Milosh died soon afterwards, and his son, Michael Obrenovich III., ascended the throne a second time in 1860. Michael immediately started a vigorous national policy. He increased the army, reorganized the national militia and established the finances on a solid basis. He was also successful in compelling the Turks to evacuate all the fortresses they still held in Serbia. But in spite of his reforms and successes, Prince Michael was cruelly assassinated in a park near Belgrade (June 10th, 1868) by partisans of the Karageorgevich family. The National Assembly elected then as Prince the fourteen-year-old boy, Milan, the son of Michael's first cousin, who was the only surviving Obrenovich. During the first part of his reign the propaganda for a "Greater Serbia," which should include all the provinces inhabited by the Serbs, made great strides. After the revolt against the Turks broke out in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Milan declared war on Turkey in 1876, in order to help in the liberation of his kinsmen. But the Serbs were



#### AN INCIDENT IN THE RISING OF KARA GEORGE.

The revolt against the Turks led by Kara George lasted almost without interruption from 1804 until 1813. In 1813 the Turks invaded Serbia with a numerous army and Kara George had to leave the country

defeated, and peace without loss to Serbia was only concluded by the intervention of the Powers (March, 1877). Only after the fall of Plevna did the Serbs join the Russians as allies in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78. Prince Milan captured Nish, and the Serbs occupied afterwards Pirot, Leskovats, Vrania and other places. By the Treaty of Berlin (1878) Serbia gained her independence and an increase of territory. In 1882, on the 6th of March, Milan was proclaimed king under the title Milan I. and Serbia again became a kingdom. Milan, who formerly followed the guidance of Russia, decided to change the traditional policy of the country



KARA GEORGE.

Kara George was the leader of the first rising against the Turks, which broke out in 1804 and resulted in the liberation of Serbia. He was the founder of the Karageorgevich dynasty, which is now reigning in Serbia.

and to come to a friendly understanding with Austria. This provoked great discontent throughout the country. The unfortunate war which King Milan started against Bulgaria in the autumn of 1885 greatly damaged his position. The Serbian army was routed at Slivnitsa and at Pirot, and it was only the intervention of Austria that stopped the victorious march of the Bulgarians. The continuous quarrels with his beautiful wife, Queen Nathalie, who, being a Russian, was a strong partisan of Russia, and his divorce from her in 1888, alienated from him public sympathy both in Serbia and abroad. Weary of the struggle,



A SITTING OF THE SKUPSHTINA.

The Serbs are governed by a very liberal Constitution, according to which the legislative power is vested in a National Assembly, or Skupshtina, of about two hundred members elected by the people. The Parliamentary franchise is on a very democratic basis, for practically every Serb possesses the right to vote.

King Milan unexpectedly abdicated in favour of his only son, Alexander, who was then thirteen years old (March, 1889).

Alexander began his reign by a *coup d'état*, proclaiming himself of age when he became seventeen, and dismissing the regents appointed during his minority. He reigned afterwards in a despotic manner, changing often his cabinets as well as the constitution of the country. He began to lose his popularity especially after he married in 1900 Draga Mashin, a widow and a former

followed a strong Russophil policy. The Serbian nation became eager to realize its national aspirations



EX-QUEEN NATHALIE.

The beautiful queen, whose quarrels with her husband, King Milan, attracted at the time a great deal of attention and sympathy, was the mother of the unfortunate King Alexander.

lady-in-waiting to his mother, in the face of strong opposition. He was abandoned by Austria and Russia, and a conspiracy to dethrone him was formed. A party of officers entered the palace on June 11th, 1903, and cruelly murdered him and his queen. With King Alexander died the last of the Obrenovich family, and the National Assembly elected as king Peter Karageorgevich, the grandson of the hero of the first Serbian Revolution.

Under the guidance of King Peter Serbia



QUEEN DRAGA OF SERBIA

Queen Draga was murdered in 1903, together with her husband, King Alexander, who married her in 1900 notwithstanding the great opposition of his parents and of the principal statesmen of Serbia.

and to liberate its kinsmen who were still under a foreign yoke. When Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908 the resentment of Serbia was very great, and war with Austria and consequent European complications were only avoided by the intervention of the Great Powers. In order to liberate the Christians under the Turkish rule, Serbia formed in 1912 with the other Balkan States an alliance



KING ALEXANDER OBRENOVICH.

King Alexander, the last of the Obrenovich dynasty, was born in 1876 and ascended the throne in 1893. He was cruelly murdered in 1903 as the result of a military conspiracy.



#### SERBIAN CAVALRY

The splendid organization and the fighting qualities of the Serbian army have been abundantly shown during the Balkan Wars of 1912-1913. The victories of Kumanovo, Uskub and Monastir gained against the Turks were amongst the greatest achievements of the war. The Serbian cavalry did very valuable and successful work, both in reconnaissance and in the pursuit of the enemy, in spite of the difficulties which the mountainous nature of the country presented.

The Balkan Allies declared war on Turkey in October, 1912. The Serbian army gained several brilliant victories and was everywhere successful against the Turks. The principal victories were at Prishtina, Kumanovo, Uskub and Monastir. As a result, Novi-Bazar, Old Serbia, the greater part of Macedonia and northern Albania were in their hands. At the end of November the Serbs arrived on the Adriatic and captured Durazzo. Immediately Austria objected to any possessions of Serbia on the Adriatic. In the end Austria succeeded in preventing Serbia from gaining an



KING PETER KARAGEORGEVICH.

King Peter, born in 1844, is the grandson of Kara George, the hero of the first Serbian Revolution. He was elected king in 1903.



NICHOLAS PASHICH.

One of the most famous and wisest statesmen of Serbia. He has been almost continuously Prime Minister since 1904, and has successfully brought the country through several political crises of international importance.

losses she sustained in the two wars and to organize and develop her new provinces when the Archduke Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of Austria, was assassinated at Serajevo. This was followed by an ultimatum and by a declaration of war from Austria (July, 1914), which brought about the Great Euro-

outlet to the Adriatic Sea, which was so indispensable for her commercial and economic development. The Balkan Allies were unfortunately not able to come to an understanding about the division of the territories they had conquered from Turkey. The second Balkan War resulted, in which Serbia and Greece, aided by Roumania, defeated Bulgaria in a short campaign of one month (July, 1913). As a result of these two wars Serbia gained 15,250 square miles of new territory, with a population of over 1,650,000 inhabitants.

Serbia was trying to recuperate from the



GENERAL PUTNIK.

An important share of the brilliant successes gained by the valiant Serbian army during the two Balkan Wars was due to the skilful leadership of General Putnik, the Chief of the General Staff.







